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ART. I. *A View of the Origin and Conduct of the War with Tippoo Sultaun*, comprising a Narrative of the Operations of the Army under the Command of Lieutenant General George Harris, and of the Siege of Seringapatam. By Lieutenant Colonel Alexander Beatson, late Aid-de-Camp to the Marquis Wellesley, Governor General of India; and Surveyor General to the Army in the Field. 4to. pp. 460. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Nicol. 1800.

To the military operations which terminated in the conquest of Mysor, we have already adverted *: but the work now before us is recommended by a perspicuous arrangement, a copious detail even of minute particulars, and by the character of authenticity which it claims as the production not only of an eye-witness, but of an officer holding a distinguished station in the army, the atchievements of which he records. "*Quorum pars magna fui*," are terms disclaimed by the modesty of British valour: yet, when the Surveyor General to an army becomes the historian of its operations, few will question the accuracy of his narrative.

From the period at which the Sultaun of Mysor beheld his dominions curtailed by the conclusion of the treaty of Seringapatam, in 1792, his implacable mind breathed only revenge; and, disregarding the unmerited clemency which he had experienced when at the mercy of the victors, he began to employ every engine which he could devise to excite a general combination against the English power. His embassies to France and the Ottoman Porte had no other object; and every court in Hindustan, from the powerful sovereign of the Abdallis to the obscure Rajah of Nepal, became the scene of his intrigues, and of his clandestine machinations. The state of his military strength and financial resources, however, does not appear to have kept pace with the ardor of his resentment; and had not the

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* See Memoirs of Tippu Sultaun, and Review of the origin of the war in Mysor, M. R. vol. xxxi. p. 224. and vol. xxxiii. p. 85.

mercenary views of the Captain of a French vessel, named Ripaud, who accidentally touched at his ports, induced him to deceive the Sultaun by representing the facility with which a large and efficient force could be procured from the Mauritius, it is not probable that he would so soon have again ventured to rouse the formidable vengeance under which he had recently suffered. His application for that purpose to the Chiefs at the Mauritius were forwarded to France, with strong recommendations; and the English Governor General felt the necessity of striking an effectual blow, before the succours could arrive on which this insidious adversary founded his hopes. At that period, (Sept. 1798.) a complication of difficulties called forth, in a particular manner, the energy and the resources of a mind naturally vigorous and resolute.

'The anxiety hitherto entertained, with regard to the designs of Tippu Sultaun, was now confirmed by a certain knowledge of his having actually proposed to the French, projects of the most extensive hostility against the British possessions in India. The alarm, as well as the danger, was considerably aggravated by the formidable preparations of the French in the Mediterranean; by the apparent desperate state of our alliances in the Decan; by the peculiar situation of the Court of Hyderabad, subjected to the will of a powerful French army and faction; by the menacing declarations and probable views of Yeman Shah; by the distribution of the army of Fort St. George, throughout various posts in the Carnatic, the island of Ceylon, and the eastern islands recently captured from the Dutch; and above all, by the general persuasion that an early attempt to assemble or to move that army would serve only as a provocation to the enemy to invade and desolate the Carnatic, without furnishing the means of repelling the invader.'

The most imminent danger was apprehended from the French army at Hyderabad. Under the command of the late Monsieur Raymond, their numbers had gradually augmented, and their discipline had improved. 'They had now nearly reached the number of 14,000 men; and had attained a degree of discipline superior in every respect to that of any native infantry in India, excepting the Sepoys entertained in the Company's service.' A negotiation was immediately opened with the Nizam for their dismission, a measure which his Highness's fears had alone prevented him from sooner adopting. A British detachment reached Hyderabad on the 10th October, and, with the co-operation of a body of his Cavalry, surrounded the camp of the French army, disarmed all the Sepoys, and secured the persons of all the French officers then in camp.

In the meantime, amid strenuous preparations for hostility, the Governor General apprized the Sultaun of the alarm which his

his machinations had excited; and urged him to admit an Ambassador, who might conciliate such differences as should arise between the States, and receive the explanation which his previous conduct had rendered necessary. Vague and general professions of pacific intentions were the only reply which could be extorted, after such intervals of time as too clearly indicated the Sultaun's intention of protracting the negotiations till the return of the rainy season should preclude military operations; during which the arrival of a French force might enable him, instead of acting on the defensive, to carry the war into the enemy's country. Under these circumstances, no alternative was left but a vigorous prosecution of hostilities.

The forces which marched from the eastern and western coasts of India, to attack the capital of Mysor in the heart of the peninsula, composed the most formidable power which any European state had hitherto sent into the field, in that country. 'The British army under the command of General Harris consisted, after the arrival of General Floyd, of thirty-five thousand, five hundred, and fifty-five fighting men, of whom eight thousand, seven hundred, and four were Europeans. The Nizam's infantry were three thousand, six hundred, and twenty-one, and his cavalry about six thousand. In all, the allied force, encamped before the capital of Mysor, consisted of forty five thousand, one hundred, and seventy six fighting men; a number nearly equal to the total military field establishment of the late Tippu Sultaun.'

The army of Bombay composed a part of the above force, and consisted of 6420 fighting men, of whom 1617 were Europeans, under the command of Lieutenant General James Stuart. 'It marched from Cananore on the 21st February, arrived at the head of the Poodicherrum Ghaut on the 25th of the same month, and took post at Sedapoor and Sedaseer on the 2d March, for the protection of large supplies of grain and other articles, which had been collected at Verajunderpet, in the district of Coorga. The Bombay troops were ordered to occupy those positions until the approach of the Madras army towards Seringapatam, when the junction of both armies might be effected.'—Four days after its arrival in this position, the Bombay army was attacked by Tippu Sultaun, before it had reached his frontier. His force consisted of 11,800 of his best soldiers; and, from the dispersed situation of the British encampment, the attack was sustained by a body not exceeding 2000 men; yet the enemy was repulsed, and thrown into great disorder, before General Stuart could collect the whole of his divided troops. The Rajah of Coorga, whose family have alternately been the victims of the bigotry, the barbarity,

or the ambition of the Mysor tyrant, was in the British camp during the engagement; and his letter to the Governor General, in which he describes the battle, and compares it with the fabled exploits of the heroes sung in the Puranas, is an affecting composition, when the situation of the writer is considered.

These two armies still occupied the same ground, when the Sultaun received intimation of General Harris having entered Mysor from the east; and immediately withdrawing his forces, he proceeded to make head against the most threatening danger. Within a mile of the village of Malavelly, his army was discovered, occupying the surrounding heights. Here an engagement took place, which was terminated by the retreat of the Sultaun; and after this the British troops experienced no farther molestation, till they took their ground for the construction of batteries before the walls of Seringapatam. Notwithstanding the interruptions which these works received from the occasional efforts of the besieged, a practicable breach was effected on the 3d of May; and on the next day the city was taken by assault.

'General Baird now proceeded to search the palace, accompanied by Lieutenant Colonel Close and Major Allan; taking care, however, to avoid the Zenana (the women's apartments), around which a sufficient force had been posted to prevent the possibility of the Sultaun's escape. In the palace, they were informed by the Killadar (Commandant), on being severely threatened, that Tippu was not there, that he had been wounded during the assault, and lay in a gateway on the north face of the fort; that he would conduct them to the spot, and if found to deceive them, he was willing to suffer death.

'General Baird, upon receiving this information, quitted the palace; and, accompanied by several officers, proceeded to the gateway, which was filled with dead bodies. The number was so great, and the place so dark, that it was impossible to distinguish one person from another. The Sultaun's horse, which had been shot, and his palanquin, were first discovered. As it was a point of the utmost political importance to ascertain the fate of the Sultaun, the bodies were taken out, and particularly examined in the presence of the Killadar; who, after sometime, having pointed out that of the Sultaun, it was put into a palanquin, and carried to the palace, under the charge of a guard.

'The Sultaun had been shot, a little above the right ear, by a musquet ball, which lodged near the mouth, in his left cheek; he had also received three wounds, apparently with the bayonet, in his right side.

'All violence ceased with the conflict; and it is but justice to add, although above eight thousand of the enemy's troops were killed in the assault, very few of the unarmed inhabitants suffered, and these unavoidably

unavoidably from random shot; a circumstance, we may venture to pronounce, unprecedented.'

All the sons of Tippu, excepting Abdul Khalic, the eldest, were found in the palace; and he and the surviving officers surrendered on the next day. The obsequies of the late Sultaun were superintended by the Cazi of the city. 'The bier was supported by the attendants of the palace, preceded by two companies of European grenadiers, and followed by an equal number. Abdul Khalic rode immediately behind the bier, accompanied by the Killadar, and other Mussulmen on foot. The Cazi chanted verses from the Coran, which were repeated by the attendannts. The streets, through which the procession passed, were lined with inhabitants; many of whom prostrated themselves before the body, and expressed their grief by loud lamentations.'

Thus fell Tippu Sultaun, in the fifty-first year of his age. The profound policy and warlike genius of his father had been too readily conceded to the son, by public opinion, both in Europe and in India; for, if we except undaunted valour, it will be difficult to discern, in the character of this Prince, the other qualities required by his station. Had his turbulent spirit been capable of repose, the usurped throne of Mysor, together with the valuable acquisitions added to it by Hyder Ali from the territories of the neighbouring states, might have descended to his posterity for many generations; and a Mohammedan dynasty might have been perpetuated, to the exclusion of the native princes. The military system of Hyder consisted in over-running the territories of his enemies with innumerable bands of marauding cavalry, desolating their countries, and avoiding general engagements, unless with manifest advantage; returning loaded with spoil, to recommence the attack in another quarter. The son, on the contrary, waited with surprising apathy till the enemy entered his own dominions; and whenever Lord Cornwallis discovered that, by neglecting his manœuvres and marching directly for his capital, an engagement must unavoidably ensue, the success of the campaign depended only on chusing the proper season for its commencement.

'Tippu Sultaun appears to have been born in the year 1749. His stature was about five feet, eight inches high; he had a short neck, square shoulders, and was rather corpulent; his limbs were small, particularly his feet and hands; he had large full eyes, small arched eye brows, and an aquiline nose; his complexion was brown, and the general expression of his countenance not void of dignity.'

The character of Tippu seems to have been strongly tinctured with superstition; and doubtless many of his most barbarous actions were performed with the view of gaining proselytes to the Moslem faith. From a register of his dreams, which he kept, some curious extracts are exhibited in this work:—it is almost superfluous to state, that their interpretation was uniformly favourable to the success of the business in which he was engaged at the time. We copy one as a sample:

'Second dream.

'At the capital on the night of Sunday, the following morning of which was Monday, the 2d of the month Zaukree, of the year of Sauz, 1225 from the birth of Mohammed, answering to the 3d of Jemadial Sani *, I had a dream. Methought that they brought and placed before me three silver trays of fresh dates, of the species called moist. The dates were each in length of the size of a span; they were fresh, and full of juice; and it was reported to me that they had been reared in the garden. At that moment I awoke; it was morning.

'Thus did the servant of God interpret this dream; that by the grace of the merciful God, the dominion of the three Cafers (infidels) shall fall into my hands.

'On the 3d of the above month, news arrived that Nizam Ali was dead.'

The three infidels, whose dominions he already possessed in his dreams, were the English, the Mahrattas, and the Nuab Nizam Ali Khan, who adheres to a different sect of Islamism from that which was professed by the Sultaun.—In Tippu's pocket-book, were found minuted a variety of pious ejaculations and reflections;—as, for example;——'Oh my soul! be thy devotion that of the heart, if thou wouldst seek God; for otherwise the Caaba, and the idol house, are both of stone.'—The Caaba is the sacred temple of Mecca; and the sentence signifies that it is the purity of the devotion offered in it, which exalts the Caaba above an idolatrous temple.

After the funeral of the Sultaun, the commissioners appointed to superintend the conquered countries met in Seringapatam; and their first measure was to settle pensions on the officers of distinction, who still survived the overthrow of the government under which they had acted.

'All the Sirdars named under the foregoing heads having, by appointment, attended the commissioners, were received, according to the classes into which they had been previously arranged, and made acquainted with the powers entrusted to the commissioners, and with

* It must be observed that Tippu had changed the name of the Mohammedan months, and altered the æra from the flight of the prophet, to that of his birth.

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the resolutions which under those powers they had adopted. This communication was received by every individual with very lively sensations of gratitude, and in several instances, of wonder. Many of them expressed the greatest astonishment at the unparralleled condescension and generosity of the Company's government, in manifesting so much consideration for persons who had so recently borne arms against them, and who could not assert any claim to their favour or protection.'

These measures produced the most salutary effect in tranquillizing the minds of the principal Mohammedans remaining in Mysor. The restoration of the Hindu family, who filled the throne of Mysor till deposed by Hyder, though not recognized as an act of indispensable justice, was recommended by every motive of political expediency: but it was considered as a delicacy due to the situation of Tippu's sons, to take no steps for that purpose while they remained in the capital.

'The fortress of Vellor had been prepared for the reception of the Princes; and Lieutenant Colonel Doveton, an officer in all respects well qualified for the charge, was appointed to the command. He was also entrusted with the payment of the stipends allotted to both families (those of Hyder and of Tippu; the stipends amounting to about 80,000l. per annum); and was directed by the Governor General to spare no reasonable expence in providing for their accommodations, on a scale suitable to their former rank and expectations. Lieutenant Colonel Doveton met the Princes beyond Ryacatah, and conducted them to Vellor, where they arrived on the 12th July. They expressed their satisfaction in the accommodations provided for them, declaring them to be, which was actually the case, far better than those to which they had been accustomed.'

The sixteenth chapter contains an historical account of the Rajahs of Mysor. Colonel Beatson begins by animadverting on a passage in Mr. Grant's "*Historical and Political View of the Decan*," a work replete with solid information; and the Colonel does not appear to discover that his own statement is in no respect different from that of Mr. Grant: probably from not adverting to this circumstance, that the Hindu monarchy of Bijanagur, after the capture of their capital, were termed the Rajahs of Anagoondi. Mr. Grant states, in perfect consistence with every historical document, that, when the empire of Bijanagur was overthrown in 1565, the governors of the distant provinces became independent; and such was the origin of Mysor:—but, says Colonel Beatson:

'We find that, in the year 1600, Raj Worriar, (it should be Udiar, and signifies that the family came from Utdesa, vulg. Orixa) was a petty poligar of Mysor, on which depended thirty-one mousas, or principal villages, exclusive of Mysor. At that period, Mysor was tributary to the Rajah of Chickraipatam, the capital of a small

Hindu soubahship, under the Rajah, or Emperor of Anagoondi. The Rajah, named Sri Ranga Rail, died in 1610 without issue, and Raj Worriar of Mysor, being esteemed for his good character and abilities, was nominated to the succession of the soubahdarry of Chickroupatam, by a decree of the reigning Rajah of Anagoondi.'

Nothing can be more obviously improper than applying the term of Subah to the possessions of a Hindu Prince, who knew of no such designation: but the whole resolves itself into this, that Chickraipatam, (it should be Chucrapatana, the circular city,) was the residence of the provincial governor, at that period; and that the authority of the representative of the antient monarchs was allowed to regulate a disputed succession; or, more probably, called in to justify possession. After these explanations, Col. Beatson will perceive nothing incompatible in the two narratives.

The descendants of Raj Worriar confirmed their power and extended their territories. His son, Siama Raja, first built a small fort on the island of Seringapatam, and added to the pagoda of Sri Ranga Swami. In fact, the city and island derived their name from the temple of the goddess Sriranga, (the beautiful Sri, the Ceres of the antients); and Srirangapatana, which we have corrupted to Seringapatam, signifies *the city of the beautiful Sri.* Of the Mysor dynasty, the most conspicuous prince was Chica Deva Raja, who succeeded to the throne in 1674.

'During this reign, the dominions of Mysor were extended to the southward as far as Caror, and to the westward as far as Wastara. In one day, Chica Deva Rajah took nine forts, for which reason he got the name of the nine fortress conqueror. The King of Delhi, (the Emperor Aurengzebe,) having heard of his fame, sent him the title of Rajah Juggit Deva, (King of the World). He made several revenue regulations, and other arrangements, which were afterwards considered as models for conducting every department of the state of Mysor. He constructed the two great aqueducts in the vicinity of Seringapatam, which spring from several stone dams, formed across the river Cauvery, between the village of Canambaddy and the Capana river. These aqueducts are for the purposes of cultivation, and render fertile the lands between them and the river Cauvery, which otherwise would be totally unproductive. They wind extremely, and preserve a gradual and easy ascent through an uneven surface on each side of the river, in horizontal distance about thirty miles: so that the whole length of those aqueducts cannot be less, I should imagine, than ninety English miles.'

In the reign of Siama Rajah, who mounted the throne in 1633, the minister contrived to depose his master, and to assume the absolute controul of the state, with the title of

Dallaway,

Dallaway, so celebrated in the wars of the Carnatic. From that period, the Rajahs appear to have enjoyed only a nominal authority; and the real power was seized from the hands of the Dallaway by Hyder Ali, in the year 1759. At each demise, a new Rajah was appointed from the same family, till the death of another Siama Rajah, in 1796, when Tippu Sultaun deemed it superfluous to continue the ceremony of installation. The only child of that prince, named Crisna Rajah Udiar, then but five years of age, was selected by the Marquis Wellesley to succeed to the dominions of his ancestors.

'The necessary preparations having been made, the members of the commission, accompanied by Mir Alum (general of the Nizam's forces) and his son Mir Dawran, escorted by his Majesty's 12th regiment, and a detachment of cavalry, proceeded on the morning of the 30th of June to the old town of Mysor. Soon after the Commissioners entered the building, the young Rajah, attended by all the male part of his family, by Purnea, (Tippu's minister of finance,) and a vast concourse of Hindoos, arrived. He was received at the entrance by the Commissioners; and Lieut. Gen. Harris, as senior member of the commission, and Mir Allum, advanced to meet him. Each taking a hand of the young Rajah, they led him to the musnud, on which they placed him, under a royal salute from the fort of Seringapatam, and three vollies of musquetry from the troops who were present; and the Commander in Chief then delivered to the Rajah, the seal and signet of the Rauj. The deportment of the young Prince during the ceremony was highly proper, and free from those symptoms of restraint and alarm which he had manifested at the first interview.

'It was a pleasing circumstance to observe, that many of the principal Sirdars of the late Tippu Sultaun, who had benefited by the liberal arrangements of the Governor General, appeared at this ceremony without invitation; and the joy manifested by the numerous Hindoos, who attended on the occasion, may more easily be imagined than described.'

It was not, however, intended to transfer to the young Rajah the whole of Tippu's possessions, much of which had never been ruled by his ancestors. The partition treaty allots the maritime country of Canara and Bednor to the Company, with the addition of Coimbator, Wymaud, and the island of Seringapatam. These were valued in a schedule delivered to the allies in 1792, by the Sultaun, at about 250,000l. per ann.; and by a subsidiary treaty with the Rajah, the Company engage to defend his territories, for which he stipulates to pay about 300,000l. The advantages, then, accruing to the Company in the first instance, may be estimated at 500,000l. per ann. after having deducted the provision for the maintenance of Tippu's family, at Vellor. A tract of equal value was

assigned to the Nuab Nizam Ali Khan; and, though the Mahrattas had not afforded their co-operation in the prosecution of hostilities, their interests were not overlooked in the division.

This copious analysis will afford our readers a distinct view of the subjects comprized in the present work; and the numerous extracts will exemplify its style, which is throughout unaffected and perspicuous.

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ART. II. *Facts and Observations tending to shew the Practicability and Advantage to the Individual and the Nation, of producing in the British Isles Clothing Wool, equal to that of Spain:* together with some Hints towards the Management of fine-woolled Sheep. By Caleb Hillier Parry, M. D. F. R. S. &c. &c. 4to. pp. 93. 4s. sewed. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

INGENIOUS and philosophic men not only elucidate every subject which they sedulously discuss, but even in their recreations and relaxations they manifest the advantages of a clear and penetrating intellect. Superior to the narrow principle of living merely for themselves, both their serious studies and their occasional avocations are animated by generous sentiments; and their happiness results not from what is vulgarly termed Pleasure, but from active efforts to benefit mankind. When such characters present themselves before us, we reprobate those degrading epithets which some enthusiasts inconsiderately apply to Humanity; and, proud both of the faculties and the virtuous energies of man, we feel all the truth of the scriptural observation, that *he is made but a little lower than the angels.* We are happy in thinking that such instances, which reflect honour on human nature, are not so rare as they are commonly supposed to be. We perceive, in the present age, among men of the learned professions, a commendable exertion to advance objects of public utility; thus demonstrating that the tendency of true philosophy is to ameliorate the world. Dr. Parry's amusement has been that of a wise man; and we contemplate him with respect in the character of a philosophic Lycidas, on his elevated farm in the vicinity of Bath, where

——— " the high lawns appear
Under the opening eye-lids of the morn,
Batt'ning his flocks;"

and, by an attention to every circumstance relative to these fleece-bearing animals, studying how they may be made most profitable to man. His predilection for the sheep of the Spanish breed is well known; and his experiments and observations concerning them abundantly merit the attention of the public.

Of late, the questions have been much agitated, whether it be possible for us to produce wool equal to that which we import from Spain; and whether, supposing this to be possible, it would be politic to make the attempt? Dr. Parry enters the lists to maintain both the practicability and the expediency of such a measure; undertaking to prove that we have it in our power to produce and to keep up a breed of sheep, whose wool shall be equal to that of Spain; and that it would be advantageous to the farmer and to the public in general, to cherish such a breed in the British Isles. Something must be conceded to partiality and something to zeal in maintaining a favorite hypothesis: but there is so much good sense in Dr. P.'s discussion, and his doctrine is so well supported by experiments, that no one can regard the work before us as a mere *hobby-horsical* effusion.

For good reasons, Dr. Parry was induced to chuse what is called the *Ryeland* breed as the basis of an attempt to improve British wool by an admixture with the Spanish race. He commenced his experiments in the year 1792, by sending four ewes to the Spanish ram belonging to the Bath Agricultural Society, and two to another belonging to the late Earl Bathurst, both given by the King. In this kind of practice he persevered: but his progress was slow; and it was not till within the last four years that he was able to employ a large number of ewes. He thus describes the breed which he has obtained:

'The Spanish rams are horned; the ewes generally hornless. In this mixed breed, even in the first descent from the Ryeland ewe, the rams have usually horns. Some few of them, however, have none; and the ewes, as might naturally be expected from both parents, are hornless. As far down as the fourth generation, all the rams are horned. The horns are large; and after having made about half a turn, or somewhat more, nearly in one plane, project spirally forwards and outwards.

'These sheep are entirely enveloped in wool, which grows under the jaws, down the forehead to the eyes, under the belly, and down the legs to the very feet. It is astonishing to see how thickly it covers their skin. It will scarcely give way to even pressure of the hand, but yields as it were by starts, like the close short hair of an extremely fine clothes-brush. In washing them, the water penetrates to the skin with great difficulty.

'I will venture to affirm, that the fleece is heavier in proportion to the carcase than that of any other known breed in Europe. In the *raw* state, (that is, unwashed on the sheep's back, or afterwards) the fleeces of the two-shear ewes average $4\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. avoirdupoise: and the weight of the living ewe being about 60 lbs. the proportion of wool to that of carcase is about one to twelve and a half. The fleece of a fat wether of the same age will be from 5 to 7 lbs. From a ram of $70\frac{1}{2}$ lbs, living weight, in the year 1797, I clipped 8 lbs. 2 oz. of raw wool.'

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The length of the *staple*, (as it is called,) or filaments, is on an average about three inches and a quarter; and the uniformity of fineness in different parts of the fleece is such, that Dr. P. fears that he shall not make some persons believe his bare assertions.

'The fact, however, is, that in shewing the specimens cut by myself from those different parts of the same animal, which are generally considered as producing the best and worst wool, I mean the shoulder and the breech, I have never met with three persons who could agree which was the finest. Many good judges have actually decided in favour of the latter. This is a curious and important distinction between the Spanish and English breeds.'

It is added that 'this wool contains a great deal of *yolk*, or oil, which is apt to entangle the dust of the field, so as often to form a kind of mat; it is however wholly free from *stichel* hairs or kemps.' Dr. Parry says that his breed is also a very healthy one.

After having thus stated the qualities of his wool, the Doctor proceeds to combat the opinions of those writers (see an "Address to the Woollen-Manufacturers of Great Britain," and "an Address to Lord Somerville") who have asserted that the essential properties of Spanish wool depend on circumstances of climate and management, which it is out of our power to obtain. He does more than this; he shews not only that wool equal to that of Spain has been obtained in various climates, but also that 'the nature of the food, whether hay, grass, chicory, Scotch cabbage, or oil-cakes, in indefinite proportions, given so as to maintain a certain quantity of flesh, makes no obvious difference in the fineness of the wool.' Such has been the result of experiments made in feeding his own flock; and so confident is he of the fact, that, forgetting the couplet in Hudibras,

> "Quoth he, I've heard old cunning stagers
> Say fools, for arguments, use wagers;"

he proposes to stake any sum, from one guinea to twenty, that he produces from one of his rams (which has been fed on Scotch cabbage, hay, and oil-cake) a sample of wool as fine as any Spanish wool; and, proceeding in the true Newmarket style, he says, 'I will afterwards *take two to one* of the same amount that I shew what shall be judged finer than the same quantity of Spanish wool taken together out of any bag which shall be imported.' Whether this bet be accepted or not, we trust that the clothiers will do justice to Dr. Parry's wool, and not suffer prejudice to operate in this case.

It may be said that, allowing Dr. Parry's breed to be excellent on account of their wool, this advantage is more than counterbalanced by their defect of carcase. It is allowed, indeed,

deed, that they are small; and that, in form, they do not correspond with the present fashionable ideas of beauty. The carcases of the wethers are stated to weigh, when tolerably fat, from 12 to 15 lbs. a quarter, and the ewes from 10 to 12 lbs.; and Dr. Parry asserts that he has constantly had this mutton killed for his own table, that the flavour was excellent, and that, from its size and taste, it has always sold in the market for the highest price. In order to induce farmers to cultivate his breed, he observes that, from experiments made to ascertain which of six sorts of sheep would pay most in flesh and wool, on the same original value of carcase, for the same quantity of food in the same time, the advantage in both cases appeared to be in favour of the smallest breed. For other particulars, we must refer the reader to the various statements made in behalf of Dr. P.'s flock. In point of fleece, it appears to us to deserve attention; and, considering the circumstances of Europe, it may merit some reflection whether we ought not to endeavour to secure to ourselves a supply of fine wool, beyond the reach of external accident. As we have a large quantity of land, which, though it will not pay for cultivation by the plough, will support this small breed of sheep, would it not be the best application of such land to stock it with these fine fleeced animals? Dr. Parry conceives that there can be but one objection to the general adoption of this plan; viz. the difficulty of obtaining the value of the wool. This difficulty, however, he thinks may be vanquished; particularly by *permitting the exportation of wool*; a measure which he regards as highly advisable. 'I have considered (says he) this subject for many years as deeply as from analogy I am able; and I cannot avoid concluding, that the unqualified prohibition of the export of British wool from Great Britain, is highly unworthy of that sound policy which has generally marked the commercial regulations of this enlightened country.'

To many circumstances of *management*, we cannot attend: but it may be proper to admit the hint with which the pamphlet concludes:

'I must be permitted to give one caution to gentlemen and others inclined to form fine-woolled flocks by the introduction of Spanish rams. I have bred many hundreds of these sheep, and I can from experience inform them, that they will be most egregiously deceived, if they expect to produce fine wool by one or two crosses with those rams, from any breed of ewes in this kingdom. Certain persons in Herefordshire tried (I believe) one cross only, and were then satisfied that they had made the experiment fairly, and were perfectly masters of the subject. Let no man hereafter flatter himself in this respect, till his sheep have, *at least*, five-sixths of the Spanish blood. He may in one or two descents improve the quality, and greatly increase the quantity,

quantity, of his wool; but he will not, at that period of the experiment, bring it to a state in which it will in fineness admit of any competition with the Spanish.'

Though Dr. Parry modestly apologizes for haste, and hints at probable inaccuracy, the general question is discussed with much ability. He appears to have ascertained some important facts, and he has recorded them in the most clear and satisfactory manner.

Mooy

ART. III. *Account of Antiquities discovered at Ribchester*, in a Letter from Charles Townley, Esq. F.R.S. and F.S.A. to the Rev. John Brand, M. A. Secretary to the Society of Antiquaries. Folio. 1l. 1s. Sheets. White, Robson, &c. 1800.

DURING the summer of 1796, as a boy was at play in a hollow by the side of a road near Ribchester, the antient *Coccium* of the Itinerary of Antoninus, his hand accidentally rubbed against a bronze helmet; which being extracted, other articles were discovered, that had been deposited in a heap of red sand nine feet below the surface. These were purchased by Mr. Townley in December 1797; and in the following month he communicated to the Society of Antiquaries the account now before us. He first exhibits a list of the articles discovered; which consisted of an antique helmet and mask, or visor, ansated *pateræ*, a bust of Minerva, a colum or colander, a circular bason of earthen ware, fibulæ or buckles, &c. and then he endeavours to explain their original meaning and application.

Mr. Townley is of opinion that all these pieces of antiquity appertained to religious uses. The helmet and mask, of which he has attempted a most elaborate explanation, he suspects to have been constructed in honour of Isis, as the *Magna Mater*, and to have been an appendant in Roman camps. That they do not belong to the armour made for war, but to that lighter species which was formerly executed merely for the purpose of processions, there can be little doubt; and they deserve the attention of the curious, because (especially in respect to the visor, so exactly imitating the human features,) they are the only examples of the kind that have hitherto been discovered. The beauty of the features of the visor, but above all the flimsiness of its texture, and its being so ill calculated for the admission of air, are circumstances tending to prove that it was not designed to be worn, but merely to be carried or suspended. A glance at the plates attached to Mr. T.'s account will induce this conviction: but, when he proceeds to explain the figures on the diadem, &c. and to argue from them that this antique bronze helmet

helmet and mask were designed to represent the goddess Isis in her threefold capacity of generating, preserving, and destroying, we cannot say that we regard his conjectures as verities, though we admire the ingenuity and learning which he has employed in their support. If all the figures in the diadem be mythological, it is fair to suppose that those on the top of the helmet, which are the most numerous, are of the same character, and have a particular reference to the fabulous history and attributes of Isis. Mr. Townley, however, does not pretend that these have any mystical signification: but he passes them very concisely, observing that 'that there seems nothing particularly remarkable in the combatants which are represented on the scull-piece.' Why may not the other decorations be considered merely as ornaments, without each referring to the particular mysteries of paganism? Mr. T. may have rightly explained the purpose for which this relict of antiquity was constructed: but all beyond this is conjecture; 'the usual resource,' as Mr. T. himself observes at the conclusion of his letter, 'in the dark paths of researches into antiquity.'

In the Archaeologia, vol. xiii. p. 223, are some ingenious remarks on the Ribchester antiquities, by the Rev. Mr. Weston, which we shall notice when we give an account of that volume,—now under consideration.

Moo-y.

ART. IV. *A Treatise on the Commerce and Police of the River Thames:* containing an Historical View of the Trade of the Port of London; and suggesting Means for preventing the Depredations thereon, by a Legislative system of River Police. With an Account of the Functions of the various Magistrates and Corporations exercising Jurisdiction on the River; and a general View of the Penal and Remedial Statutes connected with the Subject. By P. Colquhoun, LL. D. 8vo. pp. 676. 10s. 6d. Boards. Mawman. 1800.

To guard and protect the commerce of a large capital, from the many depredations and frauds to which it must be constantly exposed, is an object of great public interest. The evil, perhaps, is of such a nature that it will not admit a perfect remedy: but much may doubtless be effected by established system, executed with methodical vigilance and activity. Dr. Colquhoun observes;—'that it is a matter of the highest importance to guard the morals of the numerous classes who are employed, and by whose labours the extensive trade of the river Thames is carried on, is not only evident from the unexampled magnitude of this trade; but from a

view

view of the number of individuals (120,000) who compose these classes.'

The treatise begins with a brief history of the commerce of the river Thames, from the reign of Queen Elizabeth to our own time, including a general view of its present state, with an account of shipping, &c. The statements given contain much information, but they are not all clear, nor explicitly detailed; which circumstance sometimes renders it necessary to consult three or four tables, in order to rightly comprehend the meaning of one. The sum total of the value of the exports and imports, with the value of the British shipping on the Thames, 'taken from authorities and documents applicable to the year ending the 5th January, 1798,' the author estimates at seventy millions. 'When to this we add the coals, and goods of all kinds, constantly exposed in craft; ships of war, gunboats, and transports; the hoys for conveying naval, victualling, ordnance and military stores, to and from the public Arsenals at Deptford, Woolwich, Sheerness, and Chatham, to ships of war and transports on the river; and to and from the dock-yards at Portsmouth and Plymouth: all which must, in the course of a year, amount to at least five millions; the whole will present an aggregate of seventy-five millions sterling of floating property; all of it, more or less, subject to acts of peculation, fraud, embezzlement, pillage, and depredation.'

The principal circumstances which have encouraged and increased depredation on this property, the present active magistrate conceives to have been, 'the peculiar situation of the port, which rendered it necessary to remove merchandise in large quantities from ships and vessels to lighters, and from thence to the landing-places, and *vice versâ*;' and likewise 'the habit of smuggling which has prevailed ever since revenues were collected.' The author describes the various methods of plunder which have been practised, and particularizes the branches of our commetce which have suffered most. He estimates that the number of offenders (classing them under different descriptions and denominations) amounted to 10,850; being more than one fourth of the whole number employed in lading and unlading vessels. The total of the depredations is calculated at 506,000l. annually; an enormous sum, certainly; yet, allowing the estimation to be correct, it appears by the foregoing account that the loss on the floating property, thus subjected to robbery, did not amount to more than about $\frac{1}{150}$th part of the whole: from which it may be inferred that the regulations hitherto enforced for securing property on the river, though not so good as might have been adopted, were not negligently formed,

formed, nor altogether inefficacious. It appears that the West India merchandise has suffered by pillage in a much greater proportion than any other property on the river: the estimated amount of loss in that branch being 232,000l. on 1,013,000l. the total value of the exports and imports to and from the West Indies in one year.

To give our readers some idea of the nature and extent of this system of river-robbery, we shall copy the author's arrangement of the different sets of delinquents, and *parts* of his statements under each head: we cannot afford room for the whole:

'I. River Piracy.—This species of depredation was carried on by the most desperate and depraved class of the fraternity of nautical vagabonds, aided by receivers (equally noxious and hostile to the interest of society) who kept old iron and junk shops, in places adjacent to the river, ever ready to deposit and to conceal the nocturnal plunder of these hostile marauders, who were generally armed and equipped with boats, either kept or stolen for the particular object they had in view.

'It was the practice of these free-booters, to select dark nights for committing depredations; having previously reconnoitered the river during the day, for the purpose of marking the particular ships, vessels, and craft, most likely to afford a prolific harvest, either from the nature of the merchandise, stores, or materials, which were accessible, or from the circumstance of their being without the protection of a nightly watch.—

'Well authenticated instances have been adduced of their cutting bags of cotton, and other valuables, from the quarters of ships on their first arrival; and even of their weighing anchors, and getting clear off with these heavy materials, together with the cables and every portable article upon the deck of a ship: one instance in particular occurred a few years ago, where an American and a Guernsey ship were plundered in this manner, by the actual removal both of anchors and cabels, ultimately in the view of the masters of the vessels, who were alarmed time enough to get upon deck, to learn the fact from the river pirates themselves; who, as they rowed off, told them that they had got their anchors and cables, at the same time wishing them a good morning.'

'II. Night Plunderers.—This class is chiefly composed of gangs of the most dissolute of the watermen, who prefer idleness to labour, and indulge in every kind of low extravagance. Their depredations are chiefly confined to unprotected lighters, which are generally pointed out to them by watchmen who are associates in the same criminal pursuits, and share in the booty. On discovering by this means where plunder is to be obtained, their practice has been to provide themselves with a lug-boat, seized on for the purpose, to proceed to these unprotected lighters at midnight; and to remove such parts of their cargoes as are accessible and portable: this they convey immediately to the place settled by the receiver, or criminal purchaser, and there deposit the spoil.'

'III. NIGHT PLUNDERERS, DENOMINATED LIGHT-HORSEMEN.—Among the various classes of depredators on the West-India trade in the port of London, those denominated *Light Horsemen* seem to have by far the most pernicious, inasmuch as the pillage they obtained, by the variety of their artful practices, was generally extensive and valuable.

'The receivers who resided in the vicinity of the river, on both sides, were the chief leaders in this peculiar system of plunder; and it was always carried on by the connivance of the mate and revenue officers, in consequence of a preconcerted plan, and agreement to pay them a certain sum of money, for the liberty of opening and removing from such casks and packages, as were accessible, as much sugar, coffee, and other articles, as could be conveyed away in four or five hours during the dead of night.—For such a licence to plunder, from 20 to 30 guineas per night were usually paid to the mate and revenue officers, who generally went to bed, while the mischief was going forward, that they might not see it.

'These infamous proceedings were carried on according to a regular system.—The gangs, denominated *Light Horsemen*, were generally composed of one or more receivers, together with coopers, watermen, and lumpers, who were all necessary in their different occupations, to the accomplishment of these iniquitous designs.—They went on board completely prepared with *iron crows*, *adzes*, and other utensils, to open and again head-up the casks—with shovels to take out the sugar, and a number of bags made to contain 100lb. each.—These bags were denominated *black strap*; having been previously dyed black, to prevent their being seen in the night, when stowed in the bottom of a wherry.

'The different members of a gang had each a peculiar province assigned.—The receivers generally furnished the money necessary to bribe the officers and mate in the first instance, and also provided the *black strap*. The watermen procured as many boats as were wanted. The lumpers unstowed the casks in the hold. The coopers took out the heads, and all hands afterwards assisted in filling the bags, dispatching one boat after another to an appointed place, and making the best use of the infamous licence they had purchased, in removing as large a quantity of property as could be carried off by the utmost exertions of excessive labour; which seldom amounted to less than the value of from 150l. to 200l. a night.'—

'This dreadful system of nightly robbery was not confined to sugar alone. Wherever coffee made a part of the cargo, the plunder of that article, from its being more accessible, was always enormous.

'Rum also was pilfered in considerable qnantities.—This was obtained by means of a regular system, immediately applicable to the nature of the article.—*Skins* and *large bladders*, *with wooden nozles*, were secretly conveyed on board.—A bribe was given, as in the case of sugar and coffee, to the mate and revenue officers for a licence to draw off a certain quantity from each cask, for which purpose a pump, usually denominated a *jigger*, was previously provided, and also *tin tubes* calculated to render the booty accessible in every situation.—

By

By such devices the skins and bladders were filled, and large quantities removed to the houses of the receivers during the night. All the ships thus circumstanced, were denominated *Game Ships.*'

'IV. HEAVY HORSEMEN, OR DAY PLUNDERERS.—Under the description of *Heavy Horse*, is comprised that class of labourers called lumpers, who are chiefly employed in the lading and discharging of ships and vessels in the river Thames.—Many of them are provided with an under dress, denominated a *Jemmy*, with pockets before and behind: also with long narrow bags or pouches, which, when filled, were lashed to their legs and thighs, and concealed under wide trowsers.—By these means they were enabled to carry off sugars, coffee, cocoa, ginger, pimento, and every other article which could be obtained by pillage, in considerable quantities.—And as the mistaken parsimony of ship owners and ship masters, in not victualling these lumpers on board, furnished them with an excuse to go on shore, in many instances, three times a day, they generally endeavoured to be completely laden each time.'

'V. JOURNEYMEN COOPERS.—The labour of this class of mechanics being necessary to repair casks and packages, which have suffered injury in the stowage; about four hundred are supposed to be employed in different vessels under discharge, when the port is crowded. A large proportion of these men were accustomed to convey on shore considerable quantities of *sugar*, *coffee*, and other articles, on leaving West-India ships after they quitted work in the evening; and they have been even known to break hogsheads wilfully to obtain plunder, when it was not accessible from the general bad condition of the cargo.'

'VI. WATERMEN.—Wherever Watermen assist in smuggling transactions, it is well known that the payment they receive is far beyond what is obtained for ordinary labour.—The same is the case with respect to articles pilfered, where they are not themselves immediately concerned.—Whether prompted by idleness, prodigality, or avarice, a certain class, who are denominated *Game Watermen*, prefer this species of employment to all others.—Their system has been to begin by offering their services as soon as a ship arrives, to smuggle the private adventures of the officers and crew.—An acquaintance by this means takes place, and hints are given that they will afford equal facilities in conveying on shore, and also in finding purchasers for, any part of the cargo that can be obtained. Thus encouraged, the crews of the vessels are induced to follow the evil examples before them, in adding to the number of the plunderers.—And where watermen become their agents, these latter generally enjoy a full moiety of the profit.—

'In the various ramifications of this extensive and nefarious system, the next in order of the criminal auxiliaries were a class of low and miserable beings, who are accustomed to grub in the river at low water for old ropes, metals, and coals; and from that circumstance generally were known by the appellation of

'VII. MUD-LARKS.—In all cases where any West India or other vessel under discharge was known to afford a resource for pillage, and was from that circumstance denominated a *game ship*, these

grubbers were accustomed to prowl about in the mud under her bow and quarters, for the purpose of receiving from the lumpers, and others who were employed in the delivery, bags and handkerchiefs of sugar, coffee, and other articles, which they conveyed to the houses and shops of the receivers, according to the plan which had been preconcerted by the confederates in this general conspiracy. – And as the receptacles for the plunder, conveyed in this manner, were seldom at any great distance from the river, they were enabled to make many trips in the course of a tide.—It has been also a practice with these mudlarks to prowl about in the vicinity of the dock gates, under pretence of grubbing for nails; but the principal object is to receive sheets of copper, and copper nails, which are thrown to them by artificers and labourers on the stages, with whom they divide the booty.'—

'VIII. RAT-CATCHERS.—Among the various classes of delinquents, who have contributed to the removal of plunder from ships and vessels in the river Thames, are to be included a set of individuals who pretend to follow the profession of *Rat-Catchers*.—Many ships being infested with rats, recourse is had to persons who pretend to have a knowledge of the means of destroying them.—They are permitted with this view to go on board in the night to set their traps, and afterwards to visit them at such hours as they choose to prescribe to themselves.—In this situation they become useful auxiliaries to lumpers and others, who have concealed plunder in the hold, until a convenient opportunity occurs for removing it, which they generally are enabled to accomplish without suspicion.'—

'IX. GAME LIGHTERMEN.—This class of aquatic labourers are styled *journeymen*.—In addition to the pillage which they were accustomed to obtain in the lighters, in their passage from the ships to the quays, and afterwards while they lay for their turn to discharge, they were in the habit of acting as auxiliaries to the mates, lumpers, and others, by concealing in their lockers, *sugar, coffee, and other articles*, comprising part of the general pillage, which they conveyed on shore, in consequence of a previous agreement to receive a certain share of the booty.—The capacity of the lockers, which are generally about five feet long, and from three to four feet wide, and calculated to hold considerable quantities of goods, not only enables these lightermen to remove bulky and valuable articles, whether stolen or smuggled, but also to conceal them instantly from public view; by which means whole bags of *coffee, ginger, pimento*, and other articles, including large quantities of *sugar*, have been frequently conveyed unnoticed from West-India ships. The stolen property which was thus concealed and locked up, generally remained until the lighter was discharged of her cargo, and afterwards until removed to the usual station for empty craft, off the custom-house quay. Suspicion being then at rest, means were found by the assistance of skiffs to land the goods, and convey them to the houses of the receivers.'—

'X. SCUFFLE-HUNTERS.—These are literally composed of that lowest class of the community, who are vulgarly denominated the *Tag-Rag* and *Bobtail*.

'When

'When goods are shipping or landing upon the quays, they are ever ready to offer their assistance to work as porters by the day or the hour, and they generally come prepared with long aprons, not so much as a convenient habiliment to enable them the better to perform their labour, as to furnish them with the means of suddenly concealing what they pilfer, with which, when obtained, they generally disappear.'—

'It is to be lamented, that in developing this wide extended system of pillage, the delinquency which attaches to commercial property, must be still farther followed, even to

THE WAREHOUSES.

'The plunder in the warehouses is carried on to a very great extent, and the chief instruments are the journeymen coopers, and, in some instances, the gangsmen: as often as these coopers attend for the purpose of drawing samples, they are followed by a person who is called a sweeper, whose duty it is to sweep the sugar from the top of each hogshead, from which samples have been drawn: Each sample generally consists of four or five pounds of sugar, which is carried off by the journeymen, supposed to the house of his master, while nearly an equal quantity generally remains on the head of each hogshead, from which samples have been drawn: this is swept into a basket, and when full conveyed to a general receiving hogshead, called *a devil*, which is placed for that purpose in one corner of the warehouse, and to which every hogshead or cask deposited in the warehouse is said to contribute more or less—when full, this devil hogshead is removed to the purchaser, and replaced by another.—There is said to be generally one, and sometimes two of these receiving hogsheads in each warehouse. If it be discovered, that any one or more hogsheads weigh one quarter or half an hundred above the landing weight, the overplus is taken out and deposited in the devil hogshead.'

It is lamentable that the ingenuity of man should be exerted in so many ways to defraud his fellow creatures; and that the resources and the power of governments should be so much occupied in the prevention of crimes, when the simple operation of CONSCIENCE would effect all that is desirable! Or, setting aside all abstract ideas of right and wrong, will it never be generally believed that, ultimately, *Honesty is the best policy?* an axiom which will always stand the test of experiment.

In addition to a description of the new system of marine police, Dr. Colquhoun has given a general statement of the various authorities intitled to exercise jurisdiction on or near the river Thames. He does not consider the corporation of London as good conservators of the river. 'The exclusive jurisdiction of the corporation,' he says, 'is a burthen to themselves and an evil to the community.' The observations on this head appear to merit the notice of the parties concerned, who are probably the most competent to decide on the justice of them.

This curious volume contains also remarks on several maritime affairs not connected with river police. The most important regulations in the new system of marine police are those for registering and employing watchmen, and lumpers to clear ships, under the control of the civil officers. The author complains that several ship-owners and masters, prejudiced against the new plan, would not engage with the registered lumpers under the regulations of the marine police office: but we think that, for very important reasons, the employ or refusal of them should remain perfectly optional with ship-owners and masters. Were it otherwise, these lumpers, finding themselves privileged exclusively, would probably study the means of becoming greater plunderers than ever: but, while others may be procured, merchants and ship owners will not be so much at their mercy; and there will be, between these and other lumpers, a natural competition for character.

By the prevention of depredations, the author estimates the saving to the revenue, under the establishment of the marine police, at not less than 150,000l. per annum. If such be the case, his proposition to raise, by a tonnage duty, 'a sum not exceeding 10,000l. annually' for the support of the establishment, can scarcely be necessary; since, with so considerable a saving, government would be well enabled to supply the requisite 'pecuniary energy.'

The appendix contains copies of the instructions given to the officers, master-lumpers, and others employed under the marine police institution. These appear to be drawn up carefully and methodically.

Of the former productions of this very persevering and vigilant magistrate, respecting the Police of the Metropolis, the reader will find accounts in our xxth vol. N. S. p. 408. and xxxiid vol. p. 349. Capt. B...y.

ART. V. *The History of the Campaigns of* 1796 *and* 1797, *in Germany and Italy; and of the Campaigns of* 1799 *in Germany, Switzerland, Italy, and Holland.* Translated from the French. 8vo. 5 Vols. 2l. 17s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1800, 1801.

THE first volume of this work, having appeared some time since before the public, has already passed our ordeal *; and in the additional volumes, the diligence, the accuracy, and the ability, which we formerly commended, again require our acknowlegement. The professional man, the amateur, and the politician, will carefully turn over these pages, and will confess their obligations to the author. They will rise

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* See Rev. vol. xxiii. N. S. p. 378.

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from the perusal of them not merely instructed in the details of the horrible struggle which has been, and still continues to be the scourge of so many countries, but furnished with more correct ideas of the geography of several parts of Europe, and possessed of a deeper insight into the views of its principal cabinets.

The Generals Bonaparte, Moreau, Massena, and Lecourbe, are here catechized; and they may learn, if they will consult this historian, to profit by past mistakes. We do not dispute his competence to the province which he has here assumed: but we must observe that he is more bold in animadversion than the author of the *Précis des évènemens militaires*; an officer who is well known to possess the most eminent professional attainments. It may reasonably be supposed, however, that each of these writers has a bias, and their praises and censures must be considered accordingly. With respect to impartiality, the present author observes:

'He has had no other object and has no other pretension, than to furnish to the future historian a connected series of authentic materials; and meanwhile to present to the military man a subject of interest and instruction. This double object has imposed upon him the obligation of being strictly impartial. He flatters himself that he has been so in the statements of facts.—It would be vain to expect any greater degree of impartiality from writers contemporary with the French Revolution. Like the law of Solon, it has left no other alternative but that of being its partizan or its enemy. If sentiments adverse to it animate the heart and have guided the pen of the author, every thing induces him to believe that it was only by this means that he could anticipate the judgment of posterity.'

From this statement, it will be perceived that we must be contented if the principal facts be properly delineated in the picture; and that various tints in the colouring of the figures must occasionally be referred to the style of the artist.

As this author's details of warlike operations seldom differ from those which the public have already seen, we conceive that the selections most agreeable to our readers will consist of his reflections on events, and his accounts of the views of the several parties.

After having related Bonaparte's irruption into Germany in 1797, and his approach to Vienna, the historian considers the situation of the conqueror when he signed the preliminaries of peace, and the conduct of the Austrian Government in yielding to the impulses of fear and despondency:

'At the moment when Bonaparte signed the armistice, was he, or was he not, in a perilous situation?—Was he entitled to reap the fruits of his invasion, or to have been punished for daring to at-

tempt it? The latter of these alternatives shall be adopted without hesitation, and that for the following reasons.

'Bonaparte, when arrived at Judemburg, was more than 150 miles from the point from whence he set out, and there remained nearly as many for him to march before he found himself under the walls of Vienna, the object of his expedition *. The troops which had passed the Alps with him amounted to about 60,000 men. They occupied the banks of the Save, the Drave, and the Muehr; the extremity of the right was between Trieste and Fiume; that of the left was at the entrance of the valley of the Drave; the centre was at Judemburg, being thus considerably advanced before the two wings, but less before the right than the left; for this latter was, to speak properly, almost entirely behind him. It was in this whimsical and unexampled formation, required, indeed, by circumstances, that the French General was to continue his march towards Vienna. In casting one's eyes over the map, one sees that at every step that he would have taken, the line which he occupied on his left would have been prolonged; and that his right could not march at the same rate, and at the same distance from him, without leaving in its rear Croatia, as well as all the countries of the lower Save, and the lower Drave: he would then have been exposed on his left, or rather behind his left, to the Austrian troops, which were in the country of Saltzburg, and to those which would have come from upper Austria, or even from Bohemia; and behind his right, to all that could have marched from Croatia, and from the adjacent countries, those countries from whence the regiments, called the regiments of the frontiers, are drawn, and the whole population of which is not only subjected to conscription, but is even regimented. To what dangers, to what disasters did not such a situation expose and condemn him? Was it not probable, nay, must it not inevitably have happened, that while he was advancing with his eyes fixed on the capital, the bodies of troops, with which he had flattered himself he should be able to make head on both his flanks, would be attacked, not only by bodies of regulars, but by a numerous people, who had already, on all sides, taken up arms? That these two corps would then be obliged to fall back towards Italy, or to close in upon him? in the former case, diminishing his forces, and delivering him to the mercy of his enemies, and in the latter, depriving him of all communication with Italy, and enabling the Austrians to surround him, and to form an army in his rear. These suppositions are so far from being fanciful, that they had actually begun to be realised at the moment when the negotiations opened, and when Bonaparte still spoke in the tone of a conqueror. It has, in fact, been seen, that three days before the suspension of arms, General Loudon had expelled the French from Botzen, and that, on the following days, he had pushed them as far as the castle of Verona; while, on his side, General Kerpen drove them as far as Lientz.'—

' * He had written to the Directory, "If they pass the Rhine, I shall go to Vienna; if they do not, I shall gain three battles, and still go to Vienna."

'Colonel Casimer, at the head of a corps of Croatians, had advanced between the sea and the French, and had recovered Trieste.'—

'Already, then, while Bonaparte was still near 120 miles from Vienna, and before he had obtained any signal advantage, two hostile corps had taken post in his rear, and were at a little distance from the defiles, by which he had entered Germany, and by which he kept up his communication with Italy.'

The writer fortifies his opinion by quoting those of Dumouriez and Carnot, and concludes by lamenting the timidity of the Court of Vienna; which deprived the Archduke 'of the opportunity of raising his own glory on the ruin of that of Bonaparte, and of becoming a second time the saviour of Germany.'

The manner in which Bonaparte was received at Paris, on concluding the peace of Campo Formio, is thus related:

'Bonaparte had disdained to remain at Rastadt longer than was sufficient for the exchange of the respective powers and ratifications, and proceeded to Paris to enjoy his triumph, and the popular acclamations which he supposed would be lavished on the conqueror of Italy, and the pacificator of Campo Formio, and to receive from the Directory the rewards to which he was no less entitled for the deliberations of his army in the late crisis, than for his victories. He was deceived in his expectations. The people, fallen into a state of apathy, and become strangers to the Republic since the last revolution, saw only in him an Aga of the Janissaries of the Triumvirate; and these, jealous of his glory and of the influence to which he might aspire, received him at the Luxemborg, as *Germanicus* was at the court of *Tiberius* after his triumphs, *brevi acceptus osculo.* After some hypocritical demonstrations, which imposed on no one, they gave him the command of the army of the west, which they had just decorated with the pompous title of the army of England; and the direction of citadel rafts, of insubmersible vessels, of balloons, and other magic machines, with which the journalists of the Directory menaced the coasts of proud Albion.

'Bonaparte seized the pretext to go and review his army, to withdraw from the equivocal and painful situation in which he found himself at Paris; but his restless and fiery spirit, greedy of renown, could not accommodate itself to the retreat to which he saw himself condemned. His glory was insensibly eclipsed in the idle obscurity in which the jealousy of the Directory made it necessary for them to place him: He thought himself too great to remain with safety in France, at least unless he consented to be too little for the high destinies which he thought himself called to fulfil.

'This was probably what first gave rise to the famous expedition to Egypt. The Directory, very glad to get rid of him, and of his faithful legions in Italy, thought itself too happy to find a pretext for sending him to a distance in the reduction of a new country, and in the hope of striking a sensible blow against Great-Britain.'

At

At the time of writing this second volume, the Emperor Paul was in no small degree the favourite of the author. Subsequent events have probably altered his opinion.

The IIId vol. relates the Campaign of 1799 in Germany and Switzerland, and opens with a statement of the forces of the contending parties on the renewal of hostilities in that year; from which it appears that a great superiority was in the hands of the Emperor of Germany.—In chap. x. we meet with an interesting detail of the projects, the measures, and the expectations of the French, and of their enemies, towards the middle of this year; which we had designed to extract, but we find it too extensive. The writer terminates it by observing that 'the courts of London and Petersburgh, spared neither efforts, trouble, nor sacrifices, in order to render this campaign decisive, and to compensate by the advantages which would result from it, for the torrents of blood which it cost Europe.' It seems, however, that the Austrian cabinet was not so vigorously disposed; and in the following chapter we find strong charges urged against the conduct of that government:

'It has been said in one of the preceding chapters, that it was generally expected, that after the conquest of Italy had been sufficiently secured, Marshal Suworow would, at the head of a part of the victorious army, invade, or even turn the southern part of Switzerland, while Prince Charles would take it in flank by the north side, and that the army of Massena should be attacked at the same time, or at least kept in check on the eastern side, by a body of troops, composed of Austrians, Russians, and Swiss Auxiliaries. This plan, the execution of which would have terminated the campaign in a manner worthy of its commencement, and would have given to the war a political direction entirely new to it, had been originally formed by the courts of London and Petersburgh; and all Europe looked forward to it with anxious hopes: but it is not perhaps saying too much to assert, that the court of Vienna never intended to effectually assist this plan, although she ostensibly approved it. She might have greatly favoured the accomplishment of this project, have even rendered it unnecessary, and have reaped beforehand almost all the advantages which could have resulted from it, if she had left Prince Charles master of his own conduct, and at liberty to pursue, after the taking of Zurich, the conquest of Switzerland, a thing which at that time was, if not easy, at least very feasible. But there is reason to believe, that so far from her favouring the projects of the Archduke in this respect, she even found fault with that Prince for having pushed offensive measures so far, and for having drawn her into a situation which she wished to avoid, that of a war made on the frontiers of France, a war which would have demanded explanations, plans, and professions of political faith, which might be adverse to the sentiments and designs of the house of Austria.

'Although the inactivity of the Austrian army in Switzerland, from the middle of June, to that of August, was rather voluntary than

than the result of compulsion, it might be in some measure justified by cogent reasons; and the loss of 20,000 men, which the Archduke had sustained in the departure of Generals Bellegarde and Haddick, had left him, if not at first, at least latterly, inferior to Massena. This consideration, joined to local difficulties, furnished arguments in favour of a temporizing conduct. When however the army of General Korsakow had arrived in Switzerland, when that General according to the orders of his Sovereign, and to the state of affairs, requested that an attack should be made, when in order to affect a compliance with his wishes, vain parade and demonstrations were made, it was from that time very evident, that Austria consulted neither the views nor the interests of her allies, and that they could not any longer depend upon her co-operation in the grand work with which they were desirous of crowning the campaign. This difference in the councils was naturally attended with divisions in the camps. The almost unavoidable rivalry between the troops of the two Emperors, between soldiers who had a character for superior bravery, and others, who during ten years had given exemplary proofs of their valour, whether in good or bad fortune, was too soon converted into open jealousy, and was not, as in Italy, restrained by a vigorous authority, and diverted by active operations and common success.'

In the subsequent details, also, of the reverses of Marshal Suworow in Switzerland, blame is attached to the Austrian Generals and Commissaries, who are said not to have fulfilled their promises of assistance to the Russians; in consequence of which, the affairs of the Allies assumed a very unfavourable aspect.

After having stated the faults of the Russian Generals Petrarch and Korsakow, in Switzerland, the author proceeds, in chap. xiv. to severely criticize the conduct of the victorious French General Massena; and he maintains that the very measures of that officer, which were crowned with conquest, are open to decided military reprobation:—while the highest praises are bestowed on the veteran Marshal Suworow, for the abilities, the resolution, and the heroism, which he manifested under the adversity that resulted from the errors of others. We should have quoted these passages, if they had not been too long for our limits, and if we had not been desirous of copying some of the reflections with which the author finishes this volume:

'Upon considering all that has been said, it will be observed that this campaign has occasioned no important change in the possession of territory; that during it, there has not been above three actions, to which the names of battles could be given; that there were but one siege, or rather blockade; and that the waste of human blood which it has occasioned, though considerable, has not been extraordinary; and that offering in these four points of view, which are the principal ones in every war, nothing remarkable, it seems at first sight, not to present any great interest to the historian. He will however

however give it not only a distinguished, but even a very particular place, for it has one very great characteristic feature, which as yet has only been hinted at, and which arises from the novelty and singularity of its partial theatre, Switzerland.—After having in the 14th century, thrown off the yoke of the house of Austria—in the 15th escaped from that of the house of Burgundy—in the 16th struggled against the house of Valois—and in the 17th contended successfully with that of Savoy,—this country, by the treaty of Munster, had its independency and its liberty confirmed, and had enjoyed, for above 150 years, these two precious political blessings. At peace with all its neighbours, religious disputes had troubled its domestic tranquillity, but these momentary divisions had been succeeded by most perfect harmony; and for fourscore years, no sound of war had been heard within the circuit of the great Alps. The tranquil destiny of this Republic was very remarkable, from the geographical situation of its territory, and the manners of its inhabitants. It is not a little singular, that surrounded as it is by France, Germany, and Italy, and being the shortest road of communication between the two former and the latter, Switzerland had never been the theatre of any of the wars, in which, since the middle of the 17th century, the houses of Austria and of Bourbon have disputed the possession of Italy. It is not less extraordinary that its inhabitants, educated from their infancy to the use of arms, and considering themselves during their whole life, as belonging to no other profession, should never have had occasion to use them for the interests of their country. The nature of the soil which offered no object for the ambition of their neighbours, and the composition of the government, which could give them no alarms, produced and preserved this phenomenon of a people never engaged in war, though always ready for it.

'This happy composition, formed by nature and by human wisdom, was destined to vanish before the French revolution.—The frankness and courage of the inhabitants of the Alps, defended them ill against the machiavelian machinations of the French.—A people of Republicans, was overcome by a people in revolution—A nation which knew how to enjoy liberty, was the victim of a nation which only knew how to abuse it—The country of William Tell fell under the yoke of the soldiers of Reubell.—It was from it, that they threatened Germany: it was therefore there, that its defenders were obliged to go to oppose them.'——

'If ever Switzerland has again the misfortune of becoming the seat of a great war, the positions of the two great vallies of the Grisons, of the Thur, of the Linth, of the Limmat, of Albis, of the Sihl, of Mutten, of Schagen, of the Reuss, of St. Gothard, and of Furca, all these capital positions, which have been tried by so many combats, and so many manœuvres, will become classic ground, and be rendered sacred in the eyes of military men. In future, those who wish to acquire a knowledge of mountain war, will study the attack of the Engadine, by General Lecourbe—the skilful recovery of the same country, by General Bellegarde—the attack of Lucien-steig, by General Hotze—that of St. Gothard and of the valley of the Reuss, by General Haddick—the well concerted operations by which

which Lecourbe repossessed himself of the smaller cantons—the faults by which the Generals Korsakow and Petrarch lost, to the Allies, the possession of Switzerland—the rapid march of Marshal Suworow and the heroic efforts of his troops, who, coming in hopes of conquest, were obliged to conquer, in order to retreat.—Every young soldier, inflamed with the love of his profession, will study this curious and terrible campaign in the country itself where it was carried on.—He will go to contemplate these enormous masses of rocks, upon which the inhabitants of the Pyrenean and of the Carpathian mountains met, with astonishment—He will climb those precipitous paths, which nature seems to reserve for the light mountain goat, and which, however, were ascended by entire battalions.—He will reach those higher pinnacles where armed men went to dispute the thunder of the skies—those arid rocks, where men exposed to every want, felt still the desire of destroying one another.—He will descend into these gloomy hollows, of which the clang of arms so often disturbed the solemn repose.—He will traverse those rich vallies ravaged by war, and perhaps not yet reanimated by the hand of industry.—He will then receive a double lesson.—War will present itself to his eyes both as an art and as a scourge.—He will study the one for the love of his country, and will detest the other from a love for humanity; and he will say to himself: If ever fate places me at the head of an army, may I be able to find in the art, the means of diminishing the scourge.—May I wage war with sufficient knowledge to make it short and decisive.—May I be indebted for victory, rather to my head, than to my arm—and may I thus merit the gratitude of my country, and the esteem of my enemies, by sparing, as much as possible, the blood of the soldier, the property of the citizen, and the benefits of civilization.'

The latter volumes of this work, on which we now enter, much exceed their predecessors in interest, and are executed in a superior style. Vol. IV. contains the account of the Campaign of Italy in 1799, and commences with a view of the relative situations of the French and Austrians:

'If the account which has been given of the state of affairs in Italy at the time when the Directory resolved to recommence the war, has not been lost sight of, it will be remembered that at that moment that vast country was entirely in the power of the French, excepting that part of the state of Venice, ceded to the Emperor by the treaty of Campo Formio, the Dutchy of Parma, Tuscany, and nearly the half of the kingdom of Naples. They hastened to treat the southern parts of that country in the same way that they had done the northern for the preceding years, that is to say, to despoil its territory, and to corrupt the principles of its inhabitants, the double blessing which has always accompanied the apostles or defenders of French liberty. Nearly 80,000 French soldiers, and more than 50,000 Poles, Swiss, Piedmontese, Genoese, Romans, or Neapolitans, dispersed from the frontiers of Piedmont to that of Calabria, strove who should devour most greedily this new prey of the rights of man. Their conduct recalled to mind that of the Vandals, which they

they surpassed. These 130,000 soldiers, which composed eleven French and four Italian divisions, formed two armies, of which one was called the army of Italy, and the other that of Naples.'—

'The Austrian army occupied at a short distance the parallel line of the Adige, from the Italian Tyrol to beyond Rovigo. About 30,000 men were distributed along this line, while the army of reserve consisting of about the same number were cantoned in the Trevisano, Friuli, and Carniola.—All these troops were under the orders of Lieutenant General Kray, until Lieutenant General Melas should come to take the chief command.

'From this statement of the respective forces and positions, it appears that the French had a vast superiority in point of number, but that the Austrians had their forces concentered upon a short line, and that they could not be attacked but upon that line, while the French and their auxiliaries were scattered over the surface of Italy from the foot of the Alps to the gulphs of Naples and Manfredonia, had constantly to keep in subjection and often to combat a population of above ten millions of souls, and were obliged to guard the coasts of the Mediterranean and of the Adriatic, upon which hostile troops might at any time be landed by the English, Russian, and Turkish fleets, which held the dominion of the two seas, blocked up the ports of Corfu, Ancona, and Malta, and frequently appeared before those of Leghorn, Civitavecchia, and Naples.—It may then be said that the Austrians concentrated in a good position, having their left upon the Adriatic and their right upon the Alps, and communicating with the army of the Tyrol from which they could receive succours, having nothing to think of but to oppose the enemy in their front, had the relative superiority.'

The author's descriptions of the decisive and important battles of Legnago and Magnan are very animated, and his observations on them are able. Speaking of the latter, he says:

'This engagement was one of the few since 1792, which merited the name of a *battle*. The two armies were engaged upon their whole front, and in a narrow space. In that respect it resembled the battles of the former century, which decided commonly the fate of a campaign. This one, as will be seen, had the same effect: it otherwise furnishes no subject for reflexion. The French seem to have committed no other essential fault, but that of having separated too much the columns of their right, and their centre, which gave to their enemy the power of placing themselves between the two, and of putting the former to the route. The Austrians evidently owed their victory to their reserve, for which their superiority of numbers had enabled them to allot 10,000 men.'

When the historian relates the situation of Moreau after the battle of Cassano, and the conduct which he pursued, due tribute is paid to the abilities of that commander. The tide of success, however, continued to flow in favour of the allies; and the following passage states their progress during the early periods of the campaign:

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'The Imperialists, confined and threatened as they had been at the end of March on the line of the Adige, had in two months of the campaign gained three pitched battles, taken four fortresses, made themselves masters of the course of the Po, carried their right to the frontiers of France, and their left to the Adriatic Sea.—A Russian and Turkish squadron blocked up the port of Ancona, and bombarded that city.—General Klenau occupied the country of Ferrara, and a great part of that of Bologna, blockaded the fort of Urbino, and sent parties into Romagna, and as far as the frontiers of Tuscany.—General Ott with a division occupied the Dutchies of Parma and Modena, and had his advanced posts in the Appenines, and among other places at the important pass of Pentromoli.—General Kray who had been joined by the whole corps which had besieged the castle of Milan, and by reinforcements brought from the Hereditary countries, left 15,000 men before Mantua, passed the Po with an equal number to go and succour the divisions of Generals Ott and Klenau, and placed his head quarters at Castelluccio.—The three corps already mentioned blocked up Tortona and Alessandria, watched the mountains of the State of Genoa, and countenanced the insurgents of the maritime Alps.—The great army supported them still more at the other extremity of Piedmont, possessed itself of the passes which lead from this country to France, and kept in check the army of Moreau.—Such was the state of affairs at the end of the month of May in the upper parts of Italy.'

Why the plan of the campaign, which Marshal Suworow laid down and pursued,—and which even the present author ventures to call *singular* and *hazardous*,—did not lead to fortunate results, may be collected from the remarks here subjoined:

'Although Marshal Suworow had not perhaps imagined that Macdonald would arrive so soon, and with so many forces in Tuscany, and although it was at a moment when he encreased the distance between them by marching to Turin, yet he had not shut his eyes upon this augmentation of enemies which he would soon have to encounter; and it was to oppose them in the mean time that he had ordered General Kray to suspend the siege of Mantua, and to advance beyond the Po with fifteen battalions and twelve squadrons, of which movement an account has already been given. It has been seen that Generals Ott and Klenau who with very few troops had a large extent of country to defend, had been obliged to retire before Macdonald, notwithstanding the support afforded them by General Kray. Although always victorious, the allied army had been weakened by the very consequences of their success. In order to secure their conquests they were forced to spread and divide themselves into a multitude of parts: they had posts at the feet of the Appenines, the Maritime, the Upper and the Pennine Alps *, an immense circuit of

'* The *Appenines* commence near Mount Appio in the state of Genoa, and as is well known divide lower Italy.—The *Maritime* Alps extend from Vado in the state of Genoa to the source of the Var, at which

of more than 400 miles. The allied army at the same time carried on sieges on both sides of the Po, and sustained the war in the open country to a great distance from the towns which it either blockaded or besieged. Its right was on the frontiers of France, and its left upon the Adriatic Gulf. Its two flanks were at 300 miles distance from one another, and it may be said it was in a situation similar to that of the French at the commencement of the campaign, when on account of the vast extent of country which they guarded, they felt a relative inferiority though superior in number. As long as Marshal Suworow had no enemy but Moreau, he could with the forces he had continue this war, and at the same time act offensively against the army of the enemy; the small reinforcements which he received being at least equal to those sent to Moreau. But he had foreseen that when Macdonald should come to throw his weight into the scales, his situation would be much altered, and he had therefore beforehand asked for reinforcements both at Petersburgh and at Vienna. The first of these courts detached to his assistance 11,000 men of the 45,000 which it had destined to act in Switzerland: the second attaching less importance to the conquest of the latter country, than of Italy, ordered General Bellegarde with a part of his corps to reinforce Marshal Suworow, whenever he should be required to do so. This occasion was now come, and consequently, as has been mentioned in the preceding volume, General Bellegarde leaving General Haddick with a sufficient force in the Italian bailiwicks, quitted that country at the end of May with about 14,000 men, arrived at Milan on the 5th of June, and afterwards marched by Pavia to Alessandria, the blockade of which place was confided to him. This powerful reinforcement, and some free corps which arrived at the same time from the Hereditary states, put it in the power of Marshal Suworow to unite about 40,000 fighting men to oppose the two French Generals.'

The above-mentioned subtractions from the forces employed, and to be employed, in Switzerland, rescued Suworow from the disasters in which his measures would otherwise have involved him: but his temporary success was insured only by sacrifices which necessarily brought on the overthrow of the allies in the cantons, and paved the way to the unparalleled reverses of the next campaign.

The plans of the two republican Generals for effecting a junction of their armies, and the conduct of Suworow after the battle of the Adda, are very ably sketched: but for the particulars of these, and for the author's lively and sensible observations on them, we must refer to the work.

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which point begins the *Cotian* Alps, which reach as far as the town of Suza. From that the *Grætian* Alps occupy the space as far as Mount St. Bernard, as do the *Pennine* to St. Gothard. At that mountain begin the *Rhetian*, which end at the Piava; and from thence on to Istria, where the chain finishes, the mountains take the name of the *Northern* or *Carnic* Alps.'

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The situation of affairs in Italy, about the time of the battle of Trebia, having been described, we are then presented with some animadversions on the conduct of the Russian Field Marshal, which appear to be very just:

'If that General, instead of extending his flanks, and of undertaking at once the siege or the blockade of Mantua, Peschiera, Pizzighitone, the castle of Milan, of Ferrara, and afterwards of the citadels of Tortona and Turin, had contented himself with leaving in some chosen positions some strong detachments, which could have given him a security that the garrisons of these places should not unite and undertake any thing serious in his rear, and had keenly pressed Moreau with the greater part of his force, one of these two things must have happened: either the French would have waited for him, or have retreated before him. In the latter case, the object of the Field Marshal would have been accomplished; in the former, the immense superiority of the allied army, triumphant as it was, and at that time full of enthusiasm, would almost to a certainty have given him the victory over an army broken and discouraged by four great battles lost in the space of a month. Every action would have diminished its strength, both physical and moral, in the same proportion. It probably would not have required more than two actions to reduce it to a few thousand men, and to oblige it to repass the Alps, or at least to bury itself among their defiles. In that case the Marshal would more readily and with more certainty have attained the object which he had in view, that of gaining ground, than he did by adopting the other plan. He would besides have accomplished another point which the conduct that he pursued prevented him from attaining, that of barring the passage of Macdonald, and of preventing his junction with Moreau. It has in fact been seen what danger the cause of the allies incurred from the junction of these two Generals: one march more on the part of Macdonald, and one less on that of the Russian General, would have restored Italy to the French, or would at least have greatly limited the advantages of the campaign. Great credit is due to the latter General for the incredible rapidity with which he transported his army from the banks of the Bormida to those of the Tidone, and for the determined vigour with which he defeated the hopes of Macdonald, on the same spot where Hannibal chastised the foolish confidence of Sempronius. In three days he frustrated the plans which the French Generals had been a month in forming, compelled both the one and the other to shut themselves up in the Appenines; re-established the course of the campaign, and secured its glorious result. He it was who might truly have said—*Veni, vidi, vici.* If he did commit an error, which is doubtful, he knew how to repair it with resolution and ability; and this is a merit which distinguishes the Generals of the first order. Monsieur de Turenne committed one; but that has not prevented his being considered as the first of modern commanders.'

A proper tribute is paid to the gallantry of General Gardanne in the defence of the citadel of Alessandria; while the

contrary behaviour of General Foissac Latour at Mantua is severely reprehended.

We must not omit the glowing panegyric which the author takes occasion to pass on our country:

'This article will be terminated by remarking how glorious the æra which has now been engaging attention was for England, and how extensive were the military means of every kind which she at that time displayed. Situated at one extremity of Europe she was re-establishing at the other extremity the king of Naples on his throne,—was preserving at the same time the Ottoman empire, and accomplished more with some ships and some hundreds of men, than that immense colossus could effect for its own sake—She was sustaining by her councils, her fleets, and her treasures, the energy, the confidence, and the efforts of her continental allies—She was preparing to effect in Holland a powerful diversion in their favour—She was shewing herself on the seas superior to the united maritime powers of France and Spain.—In a remote part of the globe, she was successful in rendering the whole of India one of her colonies. In the midst of this prodigious and incomparable exhibition of her power, and of this divergence of her force, she was successfully employed in encreasing and concentrating it by the union of Ireland with Great Britain. Such was to this fortunate island, flourishing at home, and powerful abroad, the happy result of the wisdom of the constitution, the virtues of the Sovereign, the genius of Ministers, and the public spirit of the nation.'

After the fall of the citadel of Alessandria, and the surrender of Mantua, the views of Suworow are said to have been 'to confine the French within the passages of the Alps, from the Valais all the way to Coni—to approach that place nearer and nearer, in order to be able to invest it easily when the proper time should come to besiege Tortona—to force the united armies of Moreau and Macdonald to remain stationary in the maritime Alps and the Appenines—and to gain ground on their right flank in the Riviera di Levante.'

From the details respecting the important and long-dubious battle of Novi, in which the French army was at length defeated, and their commander, Joubert, killed; it appears that not only the reinforcements drawn from Switzerland, but the ill conduct of Foissac Latour, and the fine movements of Melas, were necessary to save the reputation of the Russian hero. This Field Marshal being now about to quit the scene, the writer lays before his readers a summary of his public life, which we were very desirous of quoting; since it is interesting in its subject, able in its execution, and (in our opinion) discriminating in its judgment:—but, as it is of considerable extent, we cannot make room for it, and must content ourselves with copying the concluding paragraph; than which, we think, nothing can be more happy and apposite;

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'To give in a few words a final opinion upon this man, it may be said, that he appears to have possessed rather the instinct of war than any deep knowledge of its art—that he had more energy of character, than extent of genius—that he knew admirably well how to supply the want of one, by the other—that he must not be compared with any other General—that in that capacity as well as in that of an individual, he stood single—that he was the best possible General for Russians—that if he was not great, he was however capable of doing great things, and that he has done some.'

The XIIIth and concluding chapter of this volume is full of interesting and skillful remarks on the military results and political singularities of this campaign, with a review of the conduct of the different commanders, &c. We cannot refrain from extracting a few passages, which appear to us to possess great merit:

'In vain would a campaign be sought for in history, so calculated as that which has just been described, to instruct the military man, to interest the politician, and to astonish both. The French have been seen masters, at the beginning of March, of all the length of Italy from Turin to Naples, (an extent of command without example, since that of the Romans): and they have been seen before the end of the year possessing only in this vast country, the mountains of Liguria. Their enemies have been seen gain in this lapse of time six pitched battles, taken seven fortresses of the first order, and erect their victorious colours from the sources of the Po to the sea of Sicily. We have seen three Republics destroyed, as they had been created, by the force of arms: two monarchies calling for their legitimate chiefs: the Pontifical chair expecting a successor to the unfortunate Pius the Sixth: in a word Jacobinism losing the richest prey that it had yet seized. We have seen men born amidst the ices of the pole, fighting during the dog days, under the skies of Italy: the disciples of Mahomet defending the rights of the successor of St. Peter: Protestants re-establishing the seat of the Catholic religion: fortresses besieged and taken by sailors: in short, Italy the rendezvous and the prey of almost all the nations over which it reigned two thousand years ago.—Such military transactions leave far behind them all preceding campaigns: such political singularities find not their equal in the annals of the world.'—

'The principal transactions of this campaign having thus been related and classed, a view must be taken of the causes which led to, or influenced its result. The first and most efficient of all was the folly that the Directory was guilty of in wishing to make war at once on the banks of the Adige, and at the foot of Mount Vesuvius. If instead of keeping their troops dispersed along that immense line, they had, as soon as they decided to renew the war, collected on the banks of the Po the army spread throughout the kingdom of Naples, in the States of the Church, and in Tuscany, even though they had left garrisons in two or three principal places, they would have begun hostilities not with 45,000 men as they did, but with more than 80,000: and it is not doubtful but that with this great superiority

of forces, the army of Italy would have broken the line of the Adige, and have penetrated rapidly, on one side beyond the Friuli, and on the other beyond the Tyrol which was already taken in reverse by General Lecourbe.'—

'It is admitted by every one, that Moreau shewed in this campaign much conception, talents, and judgment. The movement which he made from Milan to Turin, and from Turin to Alessandria, was excellent, skilful, and bold. Those which he made from Coni towards Genoa, and from Genoa to Tortona, were equally ably conceived; but the latter appears to have been tardy. To appreciate properly his conduct, it must be recollected that with forces very inferior, he maintained himself in the plain from the end of April till that of May; and that afterwards having retired into the mountains, he disturbed till the beginning of September the operations of the allies. As has been observed by a man who understood the art of war best, and has written best upon it, *defensive war consists entirely in the prudence and foresight of him who conducts it.* Moreau felt it, and has proved it: the defence which he sustained was intelligent, active, well calculated, and provident. His destiny in this campaign was rather singular: what had not probably happened to any other General, having twice in the space of four months succeeded to the command in chief of the same army.'—

'Where is the man who could reckon all the soldiers who fell at the same time in the different provinces of Upper Italy, in the states of Genoa, of Tuscany, of the Church, and in the kingdom of Naples? Where is he, who amidst the torrents of blood with which unhappy Italy was moistened, could number and distinguish the French, the Germans, the Russians, the Italians, and the Poles, who were at once the victims of this terrible war? Who, alas! would be disposed, even was he qualified for it, to enter into this melancholy calculation? Who would not rather fly from, than seek the scene of horror; stifle the sentiment of curiosity, under that of humanity; and prefer ignorance to knowledge on this subject? Why cannot the historian shut his eyes against this afflicting picture? But condemned as he is to open those of the public, after having examined with attention all the calculations of the daily losses worthy of notice, after having compared and weighed all the estimates that have been made on this subject, he will find himself not far from the truth in stating the loss experienced by the allies in killed and wounded at 30,000 men; in prisoners at 10,000; and that of the French in the first respect at 45,000, and in the second at 35,000. From this it results that it cost the Republicans twice as many men as it did the allies, a natural consequence of six great defeats, of a great number of fortresses being lost, and of a campaign entirely of disasters. It is also seen that it caused a sacrifice of 75,000 soldiers, the victims of the silly and barbarous ambition of five men, who replunged the world into the horrors of war.'

We have passed over the occasional episodes on the affairs of the South of Italy, which occur in this volume, as not in general deserving of much notice: but a remark is made relative to the siege of Ancona which seems to merit attention, as it has been said

said that this event laid the foundation for the differences which soon afterward arose between the two Imperial Courts:

'The conquest of Ancona secured the navigation, and the tranquillity of the Adriatic, and permitted the Austrians to reinforce the main army with some thousand men. If in these respects the acquisition of this place was advantageous to them, it was in others very fatal. Upon the reduction of it, the Russian troops were guilty of disorders and excesses which General Frœlich punished with great severity. The Emperor Paul resented so warmly the treatment his troops had received, that his Imperial Majesty of Germany was obliged to assemble at Vienna in the month of February following, a Council of War, in which the conduct of General Frœlich was examined. Although acquitted, this General was the victim, and was obliged to lose in retirement the fruit of the distinguished services which he had performed in the course of the campaign. This difference between the courts of Petersburgh and of Vienna contributed not a little, combined with other causes, to detach the former from its alliance with the latter.'

The Vth volume of this work relates entirely to the campaign of the British and Russians in Holland in 1799, and will be the subject of a future article: for which it will alone furnish an ample supply of interesting matter.

[*To be continued.*]

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ART. VI. *Lectures on Ecclesiastical History.* To which is added, An Essay on Christian Temperance and Self-denial: By the late George Campbell, D.D. Principal of Marischal College, Aberdeen. With some Account of the Life and Writings of the Author. By the Rev. George Skene Keith, Keith Hall, Aberdeenshire. 8vo. 2 Vols. 16s. Boards. Johnson. 1800.

THE public are here presented with a work which is replete with instruction, and which therefore ought not to be hastily inspected, but to be diligently studied, and maturely digested. It is, indeed, less calculated to initiate the student, than to assist the judgment of those who are deeply read in these subjects; and, though it proceeds from the pen of a theologian, it is more adapted for the statesman than for the divine. If a man be impelled by his nature to pursuits of ambition, or if he only delight in observing the workings of that splendid passion, let him turn over the pages of ecclesiastical history; for in them he will trace the steps, by which the low born adventurer raises himself to the pinnacle of power; by which a spiritual concern transforms itself into a temporal domination; by which a *cure of souls* grows up into the highest worldly authority; and by which the pastor of a congregation becomes the first among numerous potentates, creating and

dethroning kings and emperors,—or disposing, at his will, of regions still undiscovered. If a man would also know the nature of courts, he must study that of Rome, the model from which those of Europe have copied. If he be desirous of learning what intrigue is capable of effecting, he must penetrate into the arcana of ecclesiastical councils. If he would be informed to what curious devices the love of power sometimes resorts, he must make himself acquainted with the contests which have existed between civil and spiritual tribunals; and with the methods employed by religious corporations, to elude the legal provisions by which their aggrandizement was restrained. It is not a little singular that those, whose professional occupations related altogether to another and a future world, should have displayed the most daring, persevering, and subtile efforts in forming, maintaining, and strengthening their power in this transient state.

Whatever may be the spirit and the maxims in ecclesiastical matters which prevail in North Britain, we apprehend that the late worthy Principal Campbell will be considered in the *South* as too much a latitudinarian; as treating too freely of church affairs; as laying open too much of the ambition of priests and the cabals of synods; as censuring too comprehensively, and too generally, the early controversies in the Christian world; as insisting rather suspiciously on a spirit of inquiry and a love of truth; and as undervaluing the merit of conformity to the faith and canons of the church. Without intruding any opinion, however, on many of the points discussed in these volumes, we cannot but applaud the impartial spirit, the accurate judgment, and the nice discrimination which they display. The facts which they narrate are well selected, the comments on those facts are masterly, and the inferences drawn from them are natural and ingenious; while the observations which accompany them are pertinent and acute. To those who are unread in Fra Paoli, Giannoni, and in Fleury, the work will prove most acceptable; and even by such as have perused the labours of those incomparable writers, its pages will not be examined without profit.

A well-composed account of the author's life is prefixed to these volumes; which precludes the necessity of our enlarging on his character, as we shall better consult the interests of our readers by making a few extracts from these valuable, though (in some particulars) rather partial memoirs.

We fully agree with the biographer, that 'few men, in the republic of letters, have been more generally, or more deservedly, esteemed than the late Dr. George Campbell. The powers of his mind were very great, and those powers highly cultivated.

cultivated. He was certainly one of the most acute metaphysicians, one of the deepest philosophers, and one of the best critics, and most learned divines, which modern times have produced.' He was born 'at Aberdeen, the 25th day of December, 1719. His father was the Reverend Colin Campbell, one of the ministers of that city. His grandfather was George Campbell, Esq. of Westhall, in Aberdeenshire, who had originally come from Moray, and was a descendant of Campbell of Moy, and a cadet of the family of Argyle.'

At the early age of nine years, our author had the misfortune of losing his father, who died in circumstances not very affluent:

'But (says Mr. Keith) the exertions which he was obliged to make added not a little to the energy of his character; and he was one of the many evidences of this truth, that the children of the fatherless are often more successful in life, than those who have enjoyed the protection, the support, and the tender care of both their parents.

'He was indeed very fortunate in being educated in the grammar school of Aberdeen, where the Latin tongue has been taught with great success for more than a century; and in being a student at Marischal College, where Dr. Thomas Blackwell, principal and professor of Greek, though he was not Mr. Campbell's immediate preceptor, had introduced a thorough knowledge of Grecian literature; and had excited an ardent zeal for carrying, as far as was possible, the study of that copious and expressive language, which had been too much neglected, but is now more attended to, in all the Scotch universities.'——

'After he had been nine years minister to a country parish, he was translated to Aberdeen, and became one of the ministers of that city on the 23d day of June, 1757, in the room of Mr. John Bisset, deceased. Here his character, as a lecturer, was completely established: here he had an opportuuity of consulting what books he wished to see on the various subjects to which he turned his attention; and here he delivered several ingenious and learned discourses on rhetoric, criticism, and other subjects, in the literary society of Aberdeen, of which he was a member.'——

'In 1759, he was presented by his Majesty to the office of principal of Marischal College, then vacant by the death of principal Pollock.' ——

'On the death of principal Pollock, two other candidates applied for the vacant office. The magistrates of Aberdeen supported the brother of their provost, or mayor, professor Duncan; and the great landed interest of the county, with the good offices, or wishes, of a number of the masters in Marischal College, was exerted in favour of Dr. Francis Skene, a gentleman of a most respectable character, and engaging manners, who had been above twenty years a professor of philosophy in that university. Mr. Campbell had no thoughts, at first, of making any application; but he was afterwards prevailed upon to write to Archibald Duke of Argyle, who had, for

many years, had the chief direction of Scotch affairs. In this letter Mr. Campbell modestly stated his relation to his Grace's family. And this circumstance, added no doubt to his character as a man of abilities, procured to him, in a very short time, a royal presentation to the office of principal of Marischal College.'

The account here given of Principal Campbell's conduct towards Mr. Hume, on publishing his answer to that philosopher's *Essay on Miracles* *, does him the highest honor; and we wish that our limits would permit us to insert it. We must, however, recommend the statement as a lesson to all controversial writers.

Of Dr. C.'s version of the Gospels, the biographer speaks in high terms: but it is not necessary for us now to enlarge on this great and last work of the worthy Principal, because we gave a very copious account of it at the time of its appearance. See M. R. vol. ii. N. S. p. 121, 249, 404.

We shall now present our readers with Mr. Keith's view of Dr. Campbell's religious sentiments:

'In giving a more particular account of the opinions of this learned divine, it is proper to make a few distinctions, or selections. He highly disapproved of the modern Socinians, or rationalists, as they call themselves, who attempt to explain away the peculiar doctrines of the gospel. On the other hand, though satisfied, in his own mind, of the truth of the essential doctrines of Christianity, he also disapproved of certain abstruse questions concerning the Trinity, the *nature* of Christ's satisfaction, and such like controversies. He considered the proposing of these questions as arguing great presumption, and the contending about them, and the defining them very particularly, as always improper, and sometimes perhaps even impious.'—'He was uncommonly liberal to those who differed from him in religious opinions; so liberal, indeed, that he did not approve of considering some modern writers as infidels, who profess to be Christians, though they have written rather freely on certain articles. He thought that this was doing too much honour to infidelity, and driving such persons, who, with great abilities, might have keen resentments, to throw off all regard to revelation.'

With the following observations, which are honorable to him who makes them, as well as to the excellent person to whom they are applied, we shall close our extracts from this biographical sketch:

'The most prominent feature, in his moral character, was his love of truth. No man was ever more strict in speaking truth; and the least deviation from it was accompanied with the strongest marks of his disapprobation†. It was by paying this strict regard to truth and

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* For Dr. Campbell's *Dissertation on Miracles*, see Rev. vol. xxvi. p. 499.

† In this scrupulosity, Dr. C. may be said to have resembled Epaminondas, who is described by Cornelius Nepos as being *adeò veritatis diligens, ut ne joco quidem mentiretur.* Rev.

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principle, that he strengthened the powers of his understanding, while he preserved his virtue uncorrupted. For though a regard to truth cannot create or produce genius, yet it wonderfully corroborates the powers of the understanding. The man who perverts his reason, or bends it to support a falsehood, even if he have genius and abilities, becomes only a sophist; and though he may sometimes impose upon others, always lands in self-deception. But a man of equal genius and talents, who employs all the powers of his understanding only in searching after or defending truth, braces the faculties of his mind, as well as preserves his virtue. In this case, whether the reason, even of a man of genius, shall resemble an oak, or an osier, depends on always adhering to truth, and never bending to power, or acting contrary to conviction. The man, who would be qualified for answering such a writer as Mr. Hume, must have that love of truth, which was possessed by Dr. Campbell.'

It has often been remarked that virtue is the road to truth; and the above observations on the utility of truth in strengthening the capacities of the mind for science, as well as for the persevering practice of virtue, deserve the attention of those who are employed in the great business of education, and of all others who are sollicitous of acting a truly noble part on the theatre of life.

With regard to the volumes now submitted to public acceptance, it is observed by the editor, in a prefixed advertisement, that

'The following discourses on Church History are a considerable part of a course of Theological Lectures, delivered in Marischal College. The Author had transcribed and revised them, and was every year making considerable alterations and additions to the Work. For more than the last twenty years of his life, his Lectures to the Students of Divinity occupied the greater part of his time, and those now offered to the Public were distinguished as the most curious and entertaining branch of the whole. By the hearers, and many others, the Publication has been called for with a degree of earnestness, which now seldom attends the appearance of a theological performance. Those who have read the other writings of the author, will naturally expect here something of that clearness of apprehension, and acuteness of investigation so eminently displayed in the Dissertation on Miracles, in answer to Mr. Hume. And such as are acquainted with the subject, will admire the Author's well-digested learning, and will readily perceive the importance of an accurate historical deduction of the progress of church power, and the establishment of a hierarchy, and how clear and decisive it is, in all that may be termed the hinge of the controversy between high church and others. Seldom, very seldom indeed, has the subject been treated with the perspicuity, candour, and moderation, which distinguish the writings of Doctor Campbell.'

The third lecture presents a very curious and full account of the rise and progress of ecclesiastical judicature; with reflections on the present state of it in different countries. If any of our readers be desirous of knowing what were the sentiments

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of this learned author respecting our ecclesiastical jurisdictions, as constituted in this part of the island, we may refer them to pp. 71—74, in which the application of the Lord's Supper, as a qualification for civil offices, is discussed and reprobated.—The Doctor concludes this lecture with acknowleging his obligations to Fra Paoli's treatise on ecclesiastical benefices, and with a sketch of the character of that celebrated man.

When we consider to what religious communion Dr. Campbell belonged, it must not surprize us if, in setting forth the polity of the primitive church, he should seem to have pleasure in representing the Bishop and the Presbyter as of equal rank; and if he should contend that the latter was at first no more than the President of the Presbytery, and that the Bishop owed his subsequent pre-eminence to causes similar to those which, at a later period, converted certain Bishops into Metropolitans, and certain Metropolitans into Exarchs and Patriarchs. In common with all the advocates of the churches styled the reformed, and agreeably to the concessions of some members of other communions, the author maintains that the Primitive Bishop was merely the Pastor of a single congregation; that his charge was confined to a parish, though ambition afterward extended it to that of a diocese; and that the hierarchy, as to all its higher members, was formed on the model of the civil magistracy of the Roman Empire. The Doctor very much labours the point of the growth of the parochial into the diocesan charge; and he observes, after Grotius and others, that our Saviour and the sacred writers never compare the Christian ministers with the priests under the Mosaic dispensation.—Believing, as we do, that ecclesiastical (like civil) polity is an institution for attaining certain ends, which may and ought to vary with times and circumstances, we are not of opinion that the form, which prevailed in any one particular age, should be rigidly preserved and followed in every other. The reason of the thing and the authority of scripture fortify us in this sentiment; and we are happy also in finding that, in this respect, the author of the present work differs little from us. The decisions on the questions here discussed do not, therefore, in our judgment, settle the debate respecting the polity which ought to be preferred in new and different situations. Let it not, then, be deemed disaffection to our own church, if we admit that the question, whether Bishops belonged to the same order with Presbyters has been involved in much uncertainty, is far from having been fully cleared up, and is incapable perhaps of being satisfactorily solved. We are aware that Fra Paoli and Gibbon decidedly maintained the identity of these offices in the earliest ages of the church; and

also that the constitution of the synagogue, which was unquestionably the model after which the first Christian congregations were formed, supports the same notion. Whatever may be thought on this subject, we are of opinion that it would be very difficult to confute Dr. Campbell's sentiments respecting the extent of the charge of a Primitive Bishop, the equal powers of Presbyters, and the antient sense in which the word *church* was used, as expressive either of one single congregation, or of the whole body of the faithful. (Lecture VI.)

'Properly (says the Doctor) there are, in the New Testament, but two original senses of the word εκκλησια, which can be called different, though related. One is, when it denotes a number of people actually assembled, or accustomed to assemble together, and is then properly rendered by the English terms congregation, convention, assembly, and even sometimes crowd, as in Acts xix. 32. 40. The other sense is to denote a society united together by some common tie, though not convened, perhaps not convenable, in one place. And in this acceptation, as well as in the former, it sometimes occurs in classical writers, as signifying a state, or commonwealth, and nearly corresponding to the Latin *civitas*. When the word is limited, or appropriated, as it generally is in the New Testament, by its regimen, as τȣ θεȣ, τȣ κυριȣ, τȣ Χριστȣ, or by the scope of the place, it is always to be explained in one or other of the two senses following, corresponding to the two general senses above mentioned. It denotes either a single congregation of Christians, in correspondence to the first, or the whole Christian community, in correspondence to the second. We can hardly ever be at a loss to know from the context which of the two is implied. That it is in the former acceptation, is sometimes evident from the words in construction, as της εκκλησιας τη εν Κεγχρεαις, and τη εκκλησια τȣ θεȣ τη εν Κορινθω, and the like. In the latter sense it ought always to be understood when we find nothing in the expression, or in the scope of the passage, to determine us to limit it; for instance in the following, Επι ταυτη τη πετρα οικοδομησω μȣ την εκκλησιαν. Ὁ κυριος προσετιθει τȣς σωζομενȣς καθ' ἡμεραν τη εκκλησια. In this last acceptation of the word, for the whole body of Christ's disciples, wheresoever dispersed, it came afterwards to be distinguished by the epithet καθολικη. They said ἡ εκκλησια ἡ καθολικη, the catholic or universal church.

'But in any intermediate sense, between a single congregation and the whole community of Christians, not one instance can be brought of the application of the word in sacred writ. We speak now, indeed, (and this has been the manner for ages) of the Gallican church, the Greek church, the church of England, the church of Scotland, as of societies independent and complete in themselves. Such a phraseology was never adopted in the days of the apostles. They did not say the church of Asia, or the church of Macedonia, or the church of Achaia, but the churches of God in Asia, the churches in Macedonia, the churches in Achaia. The plural number is invariably used when more congregations than one are spoken of, unless the subject be of the whole commonwealth of Christ. Nor

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is this the manner of the penmen of sacred writ only. It is the constant usage of the term in the writings of ecclesiastical authors for the two first centuries.'

To manifest the liberality of Dr. Campbell, we give the following short extract:

'It will be observed by the judicious and the candid, that what has been advanced does not affect the lawfulness, or even, in certain circumstances, the expediency of the episcopal model; it only exposes the arrogance of pretending to a *jus divinum*. I am satisfied that no form of polity can plead such an exclusive charter as that phrase, in its present acceptation, is understood to imply. The claim is clearly the offspring of sectarian bigotry and ignorance. In regard to those polities which obtain at present in the different Christian sects, I own ingenuously that I have not found one of all that I have examined which can be said perfectly to coincide with the model of the apostolic church. Some, indeed, are nearer, and some more remote; but this we may say with freedom, that if a particular form of polity had been essential to the church, it had been laid down in another manner in the sacred books. The very hypothesis is, in my opinion, repugnant to the spiritual nature of the evangelical economy. It savours grossly of the conceit with which the Jews were intoxicated of the Messiah's secular kingdom, a conceit with which many like-minded Christians are intoxicated still.'

In support of the author's claim to the praise which we have just bestowed on him, we need only state that he denies that ruling elders, officers of great authority in the church of Scotland, have any foundation for their appointment in Scripture; and that he allows to Peter a primacy among the apostles, maintaining that he was the President of their College. We admire the reflections which close his discussion of this point:

'Some keen controvertists on the protestant side would be apt to censure what has been now advanced in regard to the apostle Peter, as yielding too much to the Romanists. Yet in fact nothing at all is yielded. The bishop of Rome has no more claim to be the successor of Peter, than the bishop of London has, or indeed any pastor in the church. It is but too commonly the effect, though a very bad effect, of religious controversy, that impartiality and even judgment are laid aside by both parties, and each considers it as his glory to contradict the other as much, and to recede from his sentiments as far, as possible. One is afraid of every thing that looks like concession: it is like losing ground in a battle. For when once unhappily the controversial spirit has gotten possession of a man, his object is no longer truth but victory. Against this evil I would warn you, my young friends, as much as possible. Revere truth above all things wherever ye find it. Attend coolly and calmly to the voice of reason, from what quarter soever it comes. Let not the avenues to your understanding be choaked up with prejudices and prepossessions, but be always open to conviction.'

The subsequent account of the laity, (Lect. IX.) as given by some ecclesiastical Doctors, is curious:

'To return to the distinction of the whole church into clergy and laity: in after ages they even improved upon their predecessors. The schoolmen (a modest race, all clergymen) thought it was doing the laymen too much honour to derive the name from λαος, populus. It suited their notions better to deduce it from λαας, lapis, a stone. Take for a specimen a few things advanced on this subject by some celebrated doctors, as quoted by Altensfaig in his Lexicon Theologicum. "Capitur clericus pro viro docto, scientifico, perito, scientia pleno, repleto et experto. E contra laicus capitur pro viro indocto, imperito, insipiente et lapideo. Unde laicus dicetur a λαας Græce, quod est lapis Latine. Et sic omnis clericus, in quantum clericus, est laudabilis; laicus vero, in quantum laicus, est vituperandus. Clerici quoque a toto genere de jure præponuntur, et debent præponi laicis."

Cardinal Bona thus treats the same class:

"De laicis in quibus mater cæcitatis superbia regnat, quatenus ad ea quæ sunt fidei et morum. Cum enim sicut idiotæ presumunt sacram scripturam exponere, quæ est profundissima omnium scripturarum. Cum iterum habeant quandam honestatem exteriorem, contemnunt vitam omnium aliorum, et merito hujus duplicis superbiæ excæcantur, ut incidant in errorem istum pessimum, per quem excæcantur a Deo, ut nesciant discernere quid bonum est et quid malum. Quare non omnes scripturæ libros legant laici. Quoniam nihil est tam sanctum et salubre et pium quo non contingat abuti, sic de libris evenit, quorum non est culpa, neque scribentium, sed scœlus est in abusu: non tamen arcendi videntur ab opusculis moralibus et devotis, nullam in se difficultatem, nec ambiguitatem, nec absurditatem in translatione gerentibus, cujusmodi sunt historiæ, vel vitæ, vel legendæ sanctorum, nec non meditationes sanctæ."

As these quotations ought not to pass without remark, Dr. C. sarcastically adds:—'How condescending is the good doctor! He does not absolutely prohibit the stupid and conceited generation of laymen from reading some of the plainer books of Scripture, and indulges them freely in what is better for them, story-books and godly meditations, and the legends of the saints!'

A very learned disquisition occurs in Lect. XI. on the subject of Ordination; the author contending that it is null unless connected with a *cura animarum;* and he quotes, in favour of his position, the words of Leo, Bishop of Rome:—"*Vana est habenda ordinatio, quæ nec loco fundata est, nec auctoritate munita.*" In his application of this doctrine, to the Dissenters of the North of this island, the lecturer discovers his usual ability:

'One will perhaps be surprised to hear, that our Scotch episcopal party, who have long affected to value themselves on the regular transmission of their orders, have none but what they derive from bishops merely nominal. I do not mention this with a view to derogate from their powers, but only as an argumentum ad hominem, to

to shew how much their principles militate against themselves. It does not suit my notions of Christianity, to retaliate on any sect, or to forbid any to cast out devils in the name of Christ, because they follow not us. If the lust of power had not with churchmen more influence than the spirit of the gospel, greater attention would have been given to the decision of their master in a like case. Even their own writers acknowledge, that immediately after the death of Dr. Ross, bishop of Edinburgh, the last of those ordained before the revolution, there were no local bishops in Scotland, not one appointed to any diocese, or having the inspection of any people, or spiritual jurisdiction over any district. But there were bishops who had been ordained at large, some by bishop Ross, others by some of the Scotch bishops, who, after the revolution, had retired to England. The warmest partizans of that sect have not scrupled to own, that at that gentleman's decease all the dioceses in Scotland were become vacant, and even to denominate those who had been ordained in the manner abovementioned, Utopian bishops: a title not differing materially from that which I have given them, *merely nominal bishops*. For as far as I can learn, they were not titular, even in the lowest sense. No axiom in philosophy is more indisputable than that *Quod nullibi est, non est*. The ordination, therefore, of our present Scotch episcopal clergy, is solely from presbyters; for it is allowed, that those men who came under the hands of bishop Ross had been regularly admitted ministers, or presbyters, in particular congregations, before the revolution. And to that first ordination, I maintain that their farcical consecration by Dr. Ross, and others, when they were solemnly made the depositaries of no deposit, commanded to be diligent in doing no work, vigilant in the oversight of no flock, assiduous in teaching and governing no people, and presiding in no church, added nothing at all. Let no true son of our church be offended, that I acknowledge our nonjurors to have a *sort* of presbyterian ordination; for I would by no means be understood as equalizing theirs to that which obtains with us. Whoever is ordained amongst us is ordained a bishop by a class of bishops. It is true we neither assume the titles, nor enjoy the revenues, of the dignified clergy, so denominated in other countries; but we are not the less bishops in every thing essential, for being more conformable to the apostolical and primitive model, when every bishop had but one parish, one congregation, one church or place of common worship, one altar or communion table, and was perhaps as poor as any of us. Whereas the ordination of our nonjurors proceeds from presbyters, in their own (that is, in the worst) sense of the word, men to whom a part only of the ministerial powers was committed, and from whom particularly was with-held the right of transmitting orders to others. When we say that our orders are from presbyters, we do not use the term in their acceptation, but in that wherein we find it used by Luke, in the acts of the apostles, by Paul in his epistles, and (if the name of fathers be thought to add any weight) by the purest and earliest fathers, Clemens Romanus, Polycarp, and others, presbyters, in short, whom the Holy Ghost has made bishops of the flock. But when we say their orders are from presbyters, we use

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the word not in the apostolical, but in the more recent, sense, for a sort of subordinate ministers, who are not authorised to ordain, and who, on Dr. Hammond's hypothesis, as well as ours, were not originally in the church.'

Dr. C. then continues the subject, with some pleasantry:

'With the Romanists, matrimony and holy orders are both equally sacraments, and are, besides, thought to have a great analogy to each other. The relation which Christ bears to his church, that is, the church universal, is in Scripture compared to the relation which the husband bears to the wife. And the relation which the bishop bears to the particular church under his care, has been often represented by the fathers as an emblem of the relation which Christ bears to the church universal. Pope Innocent the third adopts the same metaphor, calling ordination the spiritual marriage of the bishop to his church. To this idea also the ceremony of the ring in consecration, still retained in the church of Rome, unquestionably owes its origin. No consistent Roman catholic, therefore, can be offended, that I borrow an illustration from what he accounts likewise a sacrament, and the most analogous of them all, by the consent of popes and fathers, to the subject in hand. Now if it had happened to be (as, no doubt, if it had suited any political purpose, it would have been) the practice to celebrate marriages sometimes, απολελυμενως, wherein, if you will admit the absurdity of the expression, which, in these cases, is unavoidable, you make a man a husband, or marry him, without giving him a wife, what would really have been conferred on the man by such a ceremony? By marriage, indeed, you lay him under certain obligations, and give him certain rights. But as the wife is the object of the one, and the source of the other, where there is no wife they can have no existence. The case of the bishop is precisely the same. If you give him no charge, the obligations to superintendency, and the claims of submission and support, for want of a subject, can have no existence. What then is there in the one ceremony more nugatory than in the other? For if unmeaning words will satisfy, why may not the mystical, invisible, indelible character of husband be imprinted by the first, as that of priest or bishop is by the second?'

The Church of Scotland, it seems, does not maintain the indelible character of its priesthood; and the tenet is treated much at large by Dr. Campbell, and attacked with great force. This Romish notion was adopted, we believe, by our church; and the prevailing opinion seems to be that it is recognized as such by the state, and put in force accordingly. That it is not founded on divine authority, but that it originates in human policy, we should, after having perused the present writer's remarks, have felt much inclined to have admitted, *nisi* nostræ *obstaret consensus ecclesiæ.*—Dr. C. thus speaks on this subject:

'Beside what may be said to be conferred visibly and intelligibly in all regular ordinations, the charge of a certain district, in what regards

regards spiritual matters, and the oversight of the people, there must be something invisible and unintelligible, which is nevertheless the principal, else all those loose ordinations would be mere nullities. This mysterious something they called the *character* impressed, which was no sooner discovered or devised, than it constituted the essence of the sacrament; the other particulars relating to the charge of a flock, which to an ordinary understanding might appear to be the whole, were then found to be but circumstances.'——

'Would we then track this nonsense to its source? We must dip, or rather dive, into the futile logomachies of the schoolmen; for it will be found to be the genuine production of the darkly subtle metaphysico-scholastical theology of the middle ages. Nothing could be idler than to attempt the refutation of a dogma, for which a vestige of evidence has never been produced. But were the business of refuting incumbent upon us, a little further examination of the subject, and of the opinions that have been advanced concerning it, would entirely supercede the necessity.'

'Two puzzling questions have been moved on the subject, which were hotly agitated, but not solved, in the council of Trent, where it was thought necessary, however, to make a decree, affirming the character in opposition to one of the Lutheran articles denying it. One question is, wherein it consists; the other, whereon it is imprinted. In answer to the former, relating to the quiddity of the character, as these sophisters love to express it, it has been observed, first negatively, that it cannot be an infusion of grace, as of faith, hope, or charity, because, say our profound disquisitors, all the seven sacraments confer grace, whereas it is only the three that cannot be repeated, the unreiterable, which imprint a character; besides, it can be neither grace nor virtue for this other reason: both these may be lost, whereas the character is indelible. As little can it be a particular qualification, which fits the person for the discharge of the duties of the office, for a man may become totally unqualified by age and infirmities, or he may unqualify himself by vice. Besides, it has never been denied that persons, very ill qualified, have been ordained, and never appeared one jot better qualified after their ordination than before. It could not be the gift of justification, because this is what the impenitent, in mortal sin, does not receive in any sacrament; and yet an impenitent, in mortal sin, may be ordained and receive the character. But to consider the thing positively, there were who maintained that it was a quality. Among those there were four different opinions, according to the four sorts of qualities distinguished in the schools. Some affirmed that it is a spiritual power, others a habit or disposition, others a spiritual figure; nor was the notion that it is a sensible metaphorical quality without its advocates. Some would have it to be a real relation, others a fabric of the mind; though it was by no means clear how far these considered it as removed from nothing.

'As to the second question, the *ubi* of the character, there was no less variety of sentiments than about the first, some placing it in the essence of the soul, others in the understanding; some in the will, and others more plausibly in the imagination; others even

even in the hands and the tongue; but, by the general voice, the body was excluded. So that the whole of what they agreed in amounts to this, that in the unreiterable sacraments, as they call them, something, they know not what, is imprinted, they know not how, on something in the soul of the recipient, they know not where, which never can be deleted.

'In regard to the indelibility, all agreed, insomuch, that though a bishop, priest, or deacon, turn heretic or schismatic, deist or atheist, he still retains the character, and though not a Christian man, he is still a Christian bishop, priest, or deacon; nay, though he be degraded from his office, and excommunicated, he is, in respect of the character, still the same. Though he be cut off from the church, he is still a minister in the church. In such a situation to perform any of the sacred functions, would be in him a deadly sin, but these would be equally valid as before. Thus he may not be within the pale of the church himself, and yet be in the church a minister of Jesus Christ. He may openly and solemnly blaspheme God, and abjure the faith of Christ; he may apostatize to Judaism, to Mahometism, or to Paganism, he still retains the character. He may even become a priest of Jupiter, or a priest of Baal, and still continue a priest of Jesus Christ. The character, say the schoolmen, is not cancelled in the damned, but remains with the wicked to their disgrace and greater confusion; so that even in hell they are the ministers of Jesus Christ, and the messengers of the new covenant. Nor is it cancelled in the blessed, but remains in heaven with them for their greater glory and ornament.'

It is not often that we have the opportunity of introducing, to the acquaintance of our readers, works of equal merit with the present; and this must be our apology for the length to which we have now extended our remarks and extracts, and for the additional account which we have yet to give. The second volume will be the subject of an article in our next number.

[*To be continued.*] Jo...

ART. VII. *The Reports of the Society for bettering the Condition and increasing the Comforts of the Poor.* Vol. II. 8vo. pp. 500. 6s. 6d. (12mo. 2s.) Boards. Hatchard, Becket, &c.

THE exertions of this Society are not less meritorious than its professed object is laudable; and we have several times adverted with approbation to the proofs of its persevering industry. Our account of the First Report may be found in M. R. vol xxiii. N. S. p. 476; and we again announced it, together with the five subsequent numbers, as forming the first volume, in M. R. vol. xxix. p. 240. To this second volume, including also six Reports, is affixed a judicious prefatory Introduction by Mr. Bernard; in which he states the circumstances that have called for the establishment of this Society,

its objects and views, the progress which it has made, and the hopes of success which it entertains.

Our opinion of the state of the Poor, and of the evils which our present conduct towards them, with the existing system of poor-laws, have brought and must bring on the country, is well known. From this source, mischiefs may flow which demand more consideration than the Legislature and country-gentlemen seem disposed to allot to it. The latter, intent on the inclósure of commons and wastes, appear not to be sufficiently aware that to deprive the Poor of all their resources, and to leave them only the solitary expedient of subsisting by the stipend of daily labour, will eventually make them a burden, and create the *worst kind of waste on landed estates*. By thus proceeding with them, we shall deprive them of all forecast, and shall oblige them after a certain time of life to be pensioners on the public; and this, as Mr. B. says, is '*waste* committed on landed property in the most destructive and irreparable way. It is not the pulling down of an unnecessary hovel, nor the premature repetition of a crop of wheat corn, nor the ploughing up of a strip of pasture-ground, (the usual trivial objects of impeachment of waste,) that is the object of consideration: but it is the relaxation of the nerve of the country, the destruction of the power of cultivating the land, the conversion of the strength and energy of a people into weakness and debility, and the exchange of the means of wealth and prosperity for sources of enormous and increasing expence.'

When the Poor are forced in numbers to relinquish the humble independence of the cottage life, and to crowd themselves into Work-houses and Houses of Industry, Government should take the alarm; and gentlemen of landed property should reflect that the additions made by inclosures may not remunerate them for the heavy charges and perils, which are accumulating on them in the shape of poor-rates, and rushing in upon them from the general profligacy among the lower classes. Persuaded as we are that it is essential to their virtue, that they should be kept as much separate as circumstances will allow, we shall always be advocates for the cottage; and therefore we shall ever be disposed to speak in terms of warm commendation of the plan of this Society, which is designed to increase the economy and domestic comfort of the Poor; to hold up the industrious and thriving cottager as an object of imitation; and to promote his good habits, his welfare, and his happiness.

To assist benevolent individuals in the exercise of this wise and permanent charity, the Society endeavours to point out what good *may* be done, and *how*; and to supply details on

every subject respecting the Poor. The Society congratulates itself that its labours have been already productive of some beneficial effects. It states as 'an ascertained fact respecting *parish relief*, that the best and *most economical* application of parochial funds, is that which tends to assist and encourage industry and good management among the Poor *in their own cottages*, in the care and conduct of their own families, and in placing out their children at any early age in a course of employment; and that in those parishes, where the cottager has been supplied with a good cottage and garden, and the means of keeping his cow at a fair and moderate rent, [should it not have been added, *a pig in the stye, at least?*] the labourers are the steadiest and most orderly men, the poor's-rate greatly reduced, and the value of the landed estates much improved.'

We apprehend that Mr. Bernard's praise of soup-shops does not accord with his approbation of the cottage-system. The former may be adapted to manufactories, but the village poor should be encouraged to cook their own meals. If we do not accord with him on this and every point, we sincerely subscribe to his general sentiments and ideas; and we are decidedly of opinion that a generous and liberal conduct towards the Poor is recommended strongly by motives of the soundest policy, as well as by the dictates of the purest conscience.

Ideas of rural beauty, propagated among country gentlemen by Mr. *Capability* Browne (as he has been called), and his successors, have perhaps contributed greatly to the destruction of cottages. They have been termed *eye-sores*, and the first opportunity has generally been taken to demolish them: but it should be considered that they are not *necessarily eye sores*, though they may become so through the unavoidable neglect of the distressed occupiers, and through a want of attention from the rich to the comforts of the poor. The cottage may be made a very picturesque object; and gentlemen would greatly improve their parks and paddocks by skirting and dotting them, under the direction of taste, with small picturable habitations for their labourers;—and surely it would gratify their benevolent feelings, to observe the accordance of their own pleasures with the accommodation of the indigent! We have often wished that some of our men of landed property would set the example of erecting a *picturesque village*, by so grouping a number of small and cheaply constructed cottages, as to produce an effect which would at once please the eye and warm the heart. There are persons enough in this country, who possess the means of making such an experiment.

The papers contained in the several Reports constituting this second volume are of different merits and importance: but

they record a variety of useful experiments and ideas, which may assist the well-disposed in their exertions in behalf of the Poor. Thirty distinct communications are given, together with an Appendix, containing sixteen more; among which are an account of the management of the Poor at Hamburgh;—of a Society established at Lymington in Hampshire, for the benefit of distressed females;—of a Sunday friendly Society for the aged Poor, at Winston;—of a Charity for the relief of lying-in women and sick persons at Tottenham High-Cross;—of a provision for cottagers keeping cows at Humberston;—of a Society at Wendover for encouraging prudence and industry;—of a Society at Dublin for promoting the comforts of the Poor;—of the Bath Repository;—of a provision of Fuel for the Poor at Lower Winchendon;—of a Society at Clapham;—and of Mr. Dale's cotton mills at New Lanerk in Scotland. The Appendix contains Dr. Ferriar's Advice to the Poor, and directions respecting the Management of the Dying;—twelve Golden Rules;—account of a Cottage and Garden near Tadcaster;—and a Paper on the Comforts of the Poor.

Even charity itself may be romantically pursued, and some of the hints and plans here suggested may be open to objection: but the general principle pervading these communications is excellent, viz. that no effectual relief can be extended to the Poor independently of their own exertions, and that the best mode of assisting them is by leading them to habits of frugality and forethought.

Besides this volume, the thirteenth, fourteenth, and fifteenth Reports are published; and we shall take due notice of them when the third volume is completed.

Moo-y.

ART. VIII. *The History of Scotland,* from the earliest Times to the Æra of the Abolition of the hereditary Jurisdictions of Subjects, in the Year 1748. By Robert Heron. Six Vols. 8vo. 2l. 8s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1799.

IF the magnitude of a work, or the confidence of its author, were to be considered as a proof of its merit, our duty on the present occasion would form a very agreeable employment: for none of our readers can doubt the importance of this subject, and the elaborate discussions which it requires; and, if they should be induced to examine the production, they will immediately perceive that Mr. Heron asserts his claim to the gratitude and admiration of his contemporaries, with the full conviction of success. As critics, however, we are compelled to require other criteria of talents; and the testimony of the writer in his own favour must be rejected by a court of criticism, as inadmissible

missible evidence. If his assertions could properly be considered as proofs, we should feel little difficulty in assigning to Mr. Heron an elevated station among historians; and, at the same time, we should be forced to degrade many writers from that rank to which they have been raised by the general voice of the public. He is not, indeed, more liberal of praises on himself, than of animadversions on others: but in each case he is equally unfortunate, as both his commendation and his censure are alike unmerited.

The necessity of examining these volumes has been imposed on us by the duty which we owe to the public; and which also compels us to observe that the labour of the examination has not been relieved by any pleasure, nor compensated by any instruction. The language is inelegant and inflated, the composition is involved and obscure, the sentiments are trite and common place, and the facts are injudiciously arranged. – Having expressed this opinion of the work, we shall not long detain the attention of our readers on so ungrateful a subject, but shall satisfy ourselves with reporting the contents of each volume.

The first book, which is divided into two sections, presents the History of the Romans, the Caledonians, the Britons, the Picts, the Scots, the Anglo-Saxons, and the Danes in Scotland, from the earliest times to the accession of Malcolm Canmore. The second book, completing the first volume, extends to the death of Alexander III. This sovereign was succeeded by his grand-daughter Margaret, who was then an infant, and in a foreign country. The appointment of a regency was thus rendered necessary; and the third book of this work relates the events which took place in Scotland from that period to the death of Robert Bruce: one of the busiest and most interesting periods included in the annals of that country. After having discussed the military occurrences, the author proceeds in a separate section to give a view of the labours, the knowlege, and the enjoyments of the Scots during the latter part of the thirteenth century, and the beginning of the fourteenth. In this part, which terminates vol. II. many curious and amusing particulars are collected: but the materials, though in themselves valuable, are disposed to little advantage. In the IIId volume, the history of the national transactions of the Scots, civil and military, is continued for the space of more than two hundred years, from the accession of David Bruce, to the death of James III.; with the history of their labours, knowlege, and enjoyments in private life, for more than one hundred years, viz. from the accession of David Bruce to the return of James I. out of his captivity in England.

Volume IV. is occupied in detailing the important events which occurred in the interval between the death of James III. and the accession of James VI. to the English throne. In this portion of the work, Mr. Heron considers the conduct of the lovely but unfortunate Mary; and he is decidedly of opinion that she was an accomplice with Bothwell in the murder of Darnley, whose misfortunes alone have secured to him the attention of posterity. No light is thrown by this writer on the mysterious circumstances attending the conspiracy of Gowrie; an event which still remains unexplained. Dr. Robertson intimates that it probably originated in a desire of Queen Elizabeth to be mistress of James's person, and that no hostile intentions were harboured against his life. The good character of the Earl of Gowrie and his brother gives countenance to this conjecture; and it is in some degree supported by the manners of the times, in which such adventurous attempts were not unfrequent. Of this description was the enterprize called the *Raid of Ruthven*, planned and conducted, a few years before, against the same monarch by the father of these young men, who was tried and executed for his treasonable machinations. Mr. Heron supposes 'that astrology, the folly of the age, to the study of which the young Earl of Gowrie was addicted, had impelled him in concert with his brother, to employ these unequal and fruitless means to revenge their father's fall, and to procure their own aggrandizement!'

Volume V. is divided into two parts, (each making a volume,) and commences 'with an account of the local circumstances, and of the labours, knowlege, and enjoyments of the Scots from a short time before the middle of the fifteenth, to the end of the sixteenth century;' and it proceeds with the history from the period of James's accession to the throne of this country, to the accomplishment of the Revolution.

In the second part of the fifth volume, the history is carried down from the year 1688 to 1748.—In one of his advertisements to the public, the author says; 'with the fifth volume will be published a *Catalogue Raisonnée* of all the printed books and MSS. which I have used in the composition of this work, with particular statements of how much and what I have derived from each.' This promise, which has not been fulfilled, was probably suggested by Mr. Gibbon's proposal to Mr. Cadell*, of giving, in a supplement to his History, a critical review of all the authors whom he had used or quoted. How valuable would such a production have been from so masterly a pen as that of Gibbon; and how much reason has the world to

* See Gibbon's Miscell. Works, vol. i. p. 686.

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regret the existence of circumstances that prevented the completion of such an undertaking!

We shall now dismiss this article, with observing that, though the present work is not calculated to advance the reputation of the writer, it may facilitate the labours of future historians; and that, though Mr. Heron is chargeable with the faults of precipitation and arrogance, he is intitled to the praise of recommending virtuous examples to the notice of posterity, and of uniformly supporting the cause of morality.

S.R.

ART. IX. *An Account of the Irides or Coronæ which appear around, and contiguous to, the Bodies of the Sun, Moon, and other luminous Objects.* 8vo. 1s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1799.

A FORMER publication by the author of this tract was introduced to our readers in the 3;d vol. (N. S.) of our Review, p. 12. Perhaps we then appeared unjustly frugal in our commendations, as the experiments certainly were skilfully contrived, and the observations were judicious: but, from a want of arrangement, of precision, and of perspicuity, we frequently found ourselves in a dim and doubtful light, unable distinctly to perceive the meaning of the writer, and the object of his work. In the treatise now before us, similar defects again occur; and if our former animadversions caused a momentary emotion of anger, they have failed in producing amendment. Still, however, we understand the author better; not because he has written with superior clearness and precision, but because we are more accustomed to his manner and his ideas.

The irides are distributed into four sorts. In the first, is the iris seen contiguous to the bodies of the sun and moon: in the second, is the iris of 45 degrees diameter; in the third and fourth, are the irides commonly known by the names of primary and secondary rainbows. An investigation of the latter species of irides is not the present purpose of this author: but, without stating any precise objection, he censures the faulty explanation of them which has been given by preceding philosophers. The irides of the first sort alone are the subject of discussion in the pamphlet before us:

'These irides, (says the writer,) or coronæ, as they have been commonly called, appear of many concentric orders and circles of colours, close around and contiguous to the sun and the moon, and sometimes around the brightest of the planets and fixed stars.

'Close by the body of the luminary, and adjoining thereto, appears a circle of greyish black, greyish blue, or faint diluted white, becoming, or changed at a small distance from the object into, a white of

considerable breadth and intensity, terminated by slender circular breadths of yellow and red; succeeded by rings of violet, blue, green, yellow, red; green, diluted yellow, red; diluted green, diluted red. Frequently, by mixture of the colours of the first and second orders, the red of the first becomes more crimsoned, and the colours of the second order appear to be only green, yellow, and red; frequently the colours of the third order are only diluted green, and red; and sometimes of the third, and sometimes of the fourth order, only the extreme red is exhibited discontiguous from the other circles, by the dilution and evanescence of the other colours of the same order.

'Of these circles and orders, the two first orders are most frequently seen, the third less frequently, the fourth most rarely. Every night, when the moon shines with something more than half a face, and thin white fleecy clouds pass over her, they may occasionally be observed; or they may be seen in the day, whenever clouds of the same kind pass over the surface of the sun, by receiving the sun's image through a small hole into a darkened chamber, upon a sheet of white paper. Not a cloud, however, passes over the sun and moon, through which these luminaries may be seen, without exhibiting the first order with its circular margin of diluted yellow and red. Around the brightest of the stars, through very thin clouds or in hazy weather, the first of these orders also may sometimes be seen, terminated with yellow and red externally; and not unfrequently, in consequence of these extreme colours being invisible from the faintness of the light, it appears, without them, as a broad circular border of thin diluted white light.'

After this description, the author proceeds to examine the former illustrations of these irides, especially that which has been offered by Newton; and he shews that all explanations of the phænomena by icy crystallizations (which he properly terms *forming machinery for the purpose*) are to be rejected: as also explanations taken from the theory of the *fits of easy transmission and reflection*; since all the phænomena, which are usually attributed to this theory, are merely cases of *inflection*. In order to account for the rings of colours, Newton perceived the necessity of devising some method of shewing that white light is not only distributed into different colours, but also that each colour is distributed at different angles of deviation into various portions of coloured light; so that there may be intervals between the respective portions of each colour. His method consisted in comparing the refraction of the rays of light in their passage through a globule of water, with the reflection from the back part of a lens.—Our great philosopher's remarks on this subject, which are to be found in his Optics, Observation 13th, are thus criticized by the present author:

'The rings of colours made by reflection from the further side of a lens or sphere are not produced by the original light or beam reflected back from those parts, but *by a faint light*, scattered irregularly,

larly, according to *Newton*, every way therefrom; or rather, I would state, equally diffused therefrom in quantities greater or less at different less and greater distances from the centre or axis of the same. It might therefore reasonably be doubted whether the quantity of light would, under the circumstances of existence, be sufficient for the production of the phænomenon. But it is only when the beam of light is slender that these rings of colours are produced by reflection, and therefore a slender beam would be required also for these rings by refraction. The globules of water are, however, exposed to a beam of light of greater extent than their surfaces, too considerable to exhibit these rings, and capable, if it passed through together with these rings, of mixing with, confounding, and obliterating them. But it is certain that the direct light is not sufficiently strong after passing through the globules of water to produce vision; and therefore this collateral light must be much more incapable of being seen. If the direct light passing through the globules of water could produce vision, the body of the luminary seen through them would be enlarged and dilated into a circular disc of considerable extent of white light decaying gradually, and bounded only by the invisibility of the extreme rays. But this is never known to appear.

'The direct light is also not distributable into these rings, and therefore it is to be taken for granted that the reasoning of *Newton* concerning the number of fits of the red and differently coloured rays, is intended to apply to the faint collateral light, similar to that which makes the rings of colours by reflection, and which he conceived to be similarly derived from the refracted beam passed through the globule. The fits of easy transmission and reflection, according to the *Newtonian* theory, applied to the direct beam would only produce the division of the beam into two, one reflected and one refracted, and no distribution of differently coloured beams, red, yellow, blue, into concentric rings of the same colours, with dark intervals, or of a white beam into many rings and orders of different colours. This I tried by exposing small glass globules filled with water, to the direct light of the sun, and also to beams of the sun's light of different colours passed through a glass prism, without observing any production of these rings; and their production by the separate globules is necessary to the existence of the appearance derived from the united action of all the globules.

'The doctrine, therefore, of the different fits applied to this faint light is used to no purpose, since it can only determine the qualities or properties of light which is never seen. It is certain that these fits have no existence in the nature of things, and that the phænomena by which they seem to be established are only cases of inflections.

'But, were concentric rings of different colours producible out of the direct light which passes through a globule, or the collateral light supposed to be scattered or diffused from the direct light, the concentric rings and orders of colours exhibited thereby round any luminous object would not be of the same arrangement with that which is observed, but of one exactly the reverse. Of all the rays passing out of, and of the concentric rings produced by their passage through the globule, the purples and blues would be most bent towards

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the axis, the reds least; the blues in the rings made by the globules would be internal, the reds external to each order. Such an arrangement of the colours and orders of the globules would produce crowns around the luminaries, of which the reds would be internal, the blues and purples external.'

After this investigation, we are presented with the true principles on which the phænomena of the irides depend, and which were laid down in the writer's former publication already mentioned. According to the inferences drawn from these principles, the rings are produced by the action of the edge of a body on light already rendered divergent by the action of another body, whose edge is parallel to and in the same plane with the edge of the first body: correspondent to the edges of the bodies used in experiment, are the edges of the globules of water between which the light passes; and from the light acted-on by each edge, arise the several rings.

The author next illustrates his principles, and shews their general application, by explaining on these grounds the rings of light seen when viewing a candle through thin flocks of wool; the crowns of colours perceived through the incrustations of ice formed on the glasses of house windows; and the rings apparent to an eye charged on its external surface with semi-pellucid humours, arising from injury, intemperance, &c.

We can only farther remark that the acute reasonings and original observations, which occur in this small pamphlet, render it worthy of notice from those whose philosophic researches are directed to this subject.

R. Wood...

ART. X. *Additional Remarks on the Topography of Troy, &c.* as given by Homer, Strabo, and the ancient Geographers; in Answer to Mr. Bryant's last Publications. By J. B. S. Morritt, Esq. 4to. pp. 50. 4s. sewed. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

IN the thirtieth volume of our Review, (N. S.) we noticed Mr. Morritt's Vindication of Homer, and Mr. Bryant's Remarks on that work. The present publication has essentially the same subject with the former: but the circumstances in which the author finds himself oblige him to descend to a vindication from Mr. Bryant's aspersions, and to furnish a reply to his objections. This task he has performed with acuteness and learning.—We extract a passage in which Mr. M. speaks of his own investigations:

'That some errors and inaccuracies exist in my delineation of the country, and must exist, I am well aware. At the time I was in the Troad I was perfectly satisfied with Chevalier's description, and had no idea of the doubts which have since been started, on a subject which,

which, in that situation, appeared to me incontestably decided I had no instruments with me to make a geometrical survey of the plain, but I had Chevalier's map, and a compass. With these I observed the general outlines, and bearings of places, and corrected what seemed to me materially deficient; as for instance, the relative situation of the springs, and a few other points of that sort. Since I came home, I also conversed with Mr. Dallaway, who took a second rough survey of the plain, the year after he had been there with Mr. Stockdale and myself; furnished with these materials I could not hesitate about the map I gave, which was calculated to convey a good general idea of the plain, and was quite accurate enough to answer the purpose for which it was wanted; but I have no doubt that a more accurate survey may be taken, and I believe will still farther illustrate Homer. I must beg the reader's pardon for not having done this myself; but he will recollect that I knew nothing then of the doubts of English literati, or the objections Mr. Bryant had made to M. Chevalier; neither had I the least idea of a controversy on this subject, much less that I should take a part in it. I hoped also that my engravings would in some degree compensate for the inaccuracy of my map. I do not think, however, any blame attaches either upon M. Chevalier or myself, for giving a map of the plain and immediate environs as they *now* appear, instead of giving what Mr. Bryant seems to have expected, a map of a whole district, including Dardanus, Cotylus, Gargarus, &c. For the relative situation of these we must refer the reader to D'Anville, and other good geographers, particularly to those who have been upon the spot. Neither were we bound to conjecture the situations of other ancient towns. But we have given merely the *topography* of Troy, and we have asserted that the geography of the rest of the district furnishes no arms to combat our hypothesis; if it does, others may produce them. A similar objection may be made from the closet to every antient map. All this, you may say, is very plausible; but why not give the country farther to the north, south, east, or west? And then conclude that it "is not *suffered to appear*, because it would ruin the author's plan if admitted." It is enough for me if the map is consistent with itself and with Homer. That it is at least more like the country it represents, than any other, formed (however ingeniously) by a fire-side in England, will, perhaps, to many readers seem highly probable. Of the mistakes made in his, however, Mr. Bryant says, I have not produced one instance; when a map taken on the spot contradicts his in almost every point, one would think that those instances had been furnished, and perhaps in the most efficacious manner possible. Nor do I differ with M. Chevalier about the situation of Tenedos; it is exactly where he placed it; but it is not in my map, which was confined to the plain; the scale I had made use of not admitting the island; and I thought the objection arising from a line in Virgil not worth notice. Virgil never was looked on as an accurate geographer, and what he says is unsupported by other authorities. Tenedos is visible every where from the shore, and from the hills on which the Trojan tombs are found, but a range of low hills shuts out the plain from the Ægean.'

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We forbear to enter into a particular examination of this work, because we do not imagine that our readers in general would be much gratified by it; and the controvertists would not thank us for our opinion, unless we discussed the question with greater zeal and fervour than our inclination and the nature of our employment enable us to display. In the following article, we are again called to this debate.

R. Wood.

ART. XI. *Remarks and Observations on the Plain of Troy*, made during an Excursion in June, 1799. By William Francklin, Captain in the Service of the East India Company, and Author of A Tour to Persia, &c. 4to. pp. 53. 3s. 6d. Faulder. 1800.

ALTHOUGH we confess that we feel little interest in the controversy respecting the existence of Troy, yet we must also acknowlege that we have received no small entertainment from a perusal of the present tract. The narrative is not only easy, and pleasantly interspersed with poetical quotations, but it has also a farther claim to notice: it very remarkably confirms M. Chevalier's relation: so precisely, indeed, that (supposing both the accounts to be faithful) there can scarcely remain a doubt of Homer's acquaintance with the Troad. Whether the Greek bard adapted his descriptions to the locality, or whether he drew the scenes of action such as they had really been, we pretend not to say: but the two questions, which here present themselves, are perfectly distinct.

The excursion of Capt. Francklin was made in June 1799, in company with Mr. Hope. Nothing remarkable occurred previously to their landing on the Rhætean promontory, except a circumstance which introduces an observation from the author respecting the accuracy and correctness of the often questioned Baron de Tott:

'We visited (says Capt. F.) the Asiatic castle of the Dardanelles and inspected the cannon of enormous caliber, which placed on beds without carriages, appear too unweildy to be of any effective service or indeed to be fired off more than once. We saw likewise the famous cannon of Sultan Amurath, or Morad the II. as mentioned by De Tott, and found him correct in this account, as I have frequently done in many others. The diameter is sufficient to permit a man to sit in the inside, and the ball belonging to it is of the enormous weight of fifteen hundred pounds.'

Previously to descending into the plain of Troy, the travellers visited the tomb of Ajax; thence they proceeded to the valley of Thrymba and the Temple of Apollo; and, after having passed the valley, they crossed the range of the Callicolone Hills, from the top of one of which they had a magnificent view of the

the plain of Troy, the Hellespont, the Ægean Sea, the tumulus of Æsyetes, and the island of Tenedos. The course of their journey was then through the village of Atch Keoi, and across the Simois to the village of Bunarbashi. Ascending the heights of Troy, they took up their quarters in the house of the Aga*, and possibly (adds our enthusiastic author) 'on the site of the palace of old Priam.' The places mentioned were visited in the same day, and were included in a circuitous route of 26 British miles.

Speaking of the lofty grounds behind the Aga's house, Capt. F. says:

'It is here that the appellation of Ιλιον πνεμόεσσαν, or *wind swept Ilium*, occurs to the mind of the spectator in full force; and when the Levanters blow, the flurries coming over the broken ridges of Ida, must here be experienced in their utmost violence. Placed on this eminence, it requires no great stretch of imagination, to bring in review, the transactions of the war, and the fate of Ilium, as sung by the divine bard.

'The several barrows are all in view, all in the positions they ought to occupy, and as they impressed on my own mind with so full a conviction, as not to leave the smallest doubt remaining, but that I stood on the very site of Troy, or near it, so I cannot think it possible, that any one can personally view the evidence afforded by the disposition of the country around, and these monuments in particular, without complete satisfaction in his mind, that Homer described this scene from characters that are indelible. Barrows it is true are common to other countries: but that we should have a rising ground for the position of the city, a plain suited to the conflicts of the armies, sweeping down to the Hellespont, two rivers, one on each side this plain, joining at no great distance from the sea, added to the different barrows, all in the very places where they ought to be, cannot be the effect of chance, and are circumstances so various, that no country could produce them all, unless it were the very spot designed. Had I ever been so sceptical, (and doubts I certainly had,) I could not see two barrows, one large, and one smaller at Sigæum, without confessing that such they ought to be according to the Iliad, and such their place. I could not see the Rhœteum marked by another barrow, without reflecting that Ajax was encamped on the left of the line, and that on the left he ought to have been buried. I could not view the barrow of Æsyetes, marked out by Strabo, and fixed at the most advantageous point for reconnoitring, without recalling the assignment made of it by Homer to this purpose: but above all this, when I saw the barrow of Hector at the back of Troy, still marked by the pile of stones, which Homer allots to this, and this only, I could not help thanking Mr. Morritt for pointing out this peculiarity to my notice, and I must add my testimony to his, that such is the fact, the stones are

* The Turkish deputy, who acts under the Pasha of the district.

piled

piled as his drawing represents them, and their appearance is not exaggerated. Now that all these circumstances should be united in the space of a few miles by accident, and that they should all correspond with Homer, is beyond the power of calculation, if the fact were not true; no other spot in the world could be accommodated to the description, or answer to the particulars required, and if this spot does answer with so much precision, both generally and specially, here and no where else must we look for Troy.'

The next paragraph we refrain from quoting only because it does not bear on the point in question: but it reflects much credit on the critical taste and feeling of the writer. It relates to a passage which he extracts from the Iliad, 24th book, in which Helen so beautifully describes the amiable parts of Hector's character *. We know not any parts of this admirable poem, so proper to bring forwards in refutation of Voltaire's assertion that Homer is never pathetic.

To prove that the remark relative to Troy, "*etiam periere ruinæ*," is not true, Capt. F. says:

'The idea entertained by many persons that there are no remains of a city on the site of Troy, or that the ruins themselves have perished, is not altogether well founded; on the contrary about the Acropolis, and the environs of the city, they certainly are to be found; at Bunarbashi in the *Aga*'s house and in the village below, are many large blocks of marble, columns of red and grey granite, and capitals of columns, one of which we found in the stable of the Aga's court yard. It appeared to have formed part of a pillar of a temple of Jupiter, from the device of an *eagle* which it contained, and may have been brought hither from some of the temples in the neighbourhood, as its capital which is Ionick precludes us from assigning it to remote antiquity. But on the hill of Bunarbashi is an immense block of very coarse marble, with some devices rudely executed, particularly the head of a cypress tree; it looks as if it had belonged to a fountain, and is rude enough for any age.

'In a cottage near the sources of Scamander, we found a piece of marble about two feet high, no doubt of great antiquity, it had the figure of a warrior, well executed in *alto relievo*; of this figure Mr. Hope's painter took a drawing, and we regretted much that its size prevented our getting it on board our ship.'

On the summit of Gargarus, Capt. Francklin bears testimony to the accuracy of Mr. Morritt's reasoning:

'When we were upon this spot, we had Homer and the work of Morritt in our hands, we examined the poet by the comment, and could not refrain from giving our testimony to the fidelity of both. Gargarus is a summit that not only overlooks all that Homer assigns to the prospect, but is really the highest point of the whole ridge, and commands a view to the north and south west, and when we

* Αλλ' απω στε ακουσα κακον επος, 'ωδ' ασυφηλον, &c. Ω. l. 767.

figured

figured to our imagination, Jupiter sitting here, and Neptune watching his motions from the heights of Samothrace, with the Plain of Troy between them, we felt from the sublimity of the poet, the superiority of their rank, as clearly as the subordinate situation of the other deities, when one party sat on Callicolone, and the other on the retrenchment of Hercules to contemplate the re-appearance of Achilles in the field. I have heard since my return, that Mr. Morritt's assumption of this height for the Gargarus of the poet, has been doubted, and that his measures from Lectum have been supposed to be erroneously taken from the distance between Lectum and the city of Gargarus rather than the mount. This is a question I cannot enter into, but Homer describes Gargarus as the highest point of Ida, and such was the summit on which we stood; the view we had to the west was also correspondent with the description of the poet, and the view we took to the north was across the Hellespont into Thrace, and might well be extended to the Glactophagi, Hippemolgi, and Tartar tribes (in that age) on the Danube, if we had had the same powers of vision as the deity is endowed with in the poem.'

As the controversy concerning Troy is not likely soon to terminate, this small publication will be read with avidity; but, as we have already observed, it has other recommendations than those which the circumstances of the moment bestow on it.

R. Wood.

ART. XII. *The Select Works of Antony Van Leeuwenhoek*, containing his Microscopical Discoveries in many of the Works of Nature. Translated from the Dutch and Latin Editions published by the Author. By Samuel Hoole. Parts II. and III. 4to. 10s. 6d. each. Nicol, &c. 1800.

THE first part of this elegant publication was announced in our 29th vol. N. S. p. 408. The second and third, now before us, complete the first volume; and the remainder is promised to appear in an equal quantity.

Part II. commences with an account of an animalcule, or small living creature, sometimes found in the livers of sheep and other beasts. This tract was not written by Leeuwenhoek, but by an inhabitant of Leyden, named Bidloo: it was first printed in the Dutch edition of the present work, and is now translated for the assigned reason of the interesting nature of its subject. The same motive has influenced the translator in collecting, from several gentlemen, corroborations of the opinion of Bidloo concerning the cause of the disease:

'Since the perusal of this Essay, the translator has had opportunities of conversing with several judicious gentlemen, who are conversant in the grazing of sheep, from whom he has collected the following particulars:

'That in very wet seasons, particularly towards the latter end of the year, a species of grass springs up in the low and wet lands, by feeding

feeding on which, the sheep are supposed to contract the distemper called the Rot. That, if the rains do not abound, until after the winter frost has been experienced, the sheep are not then obnoxious to this disease, but otherwise, if a wet season precedes the frost; and lastly, that sheep infected with this disease, do, for a time, appear fat and healthy, but, when the disorder gets to a height, they fall away rapidly.

'These particulars seem to prove, that the disease called the Rot in sheep, does in fact proceed from the animal described in the preceding essay, which, being bred in the water, and adhering, with its eggs, to the grass growing in watery places, is swallowed by the sheep. And, it is probable that when the frost precedes a wet season, the animalcules and their eggs are killed by the frost, and consequently the sheep escape: we may also conclude, that while this noxious animalcule is in an infant state in the bowels of the sheep, it may not be particularly injurious, but when it arrives at a size to prey upon the liver, first, a sickness, and wasting in the animal, and afterwards, death must ensue; and the translator has been informed by a gentleman's gamekeeper, that he has frequently found hares, dead of this disease, and that upon opening them, hundreds of the animalcules were found in their livers.

'These particulars the translator thought proper to notice, leaving it to those who are qualified, to exercise their medical skill in the discovery of a remedy for this fatal distemper.

'The animalcule before described is called in some parts of England a fluke, in others a loop, but most generally a flounder, probably from the resemblance it bears to the fish of that name.'

We now come to an *Introduction*, by the translator; in which he explains what is to be understood by the term *nature*, and shews how *matter* must be perpetually influenced by the unremitting agency of the Deity: so that when we say that the world is continued by the *laws of nature*, the remark is the same as if we observed that it is continued by the ceaseless operation of God.—Mr. Hoole has quoted the opinions of three great men, Newton, Boyle, and Mead, concerning the meaning of the words *nature*, *matter*, &c. Yet, after all, a sceptical and exact reasoner would, without great difficulty, find some flaw in these argumentations; something not continued in the concatenation of proofs; or some arbitrary assumption of a disputable principle. Indeed, it is on account of the insufficiency of human reason on these subjects, that the pious inquirer stops short in his pursuit, and reposes on the mild and temperate conclusion that what are mysteries were intended to be such, and were purposely placed by a Divine Author beyond the reach of human investigation.

The Essays of Leeuwenhoek, contained in this part, are as follow:

'On the circulation of the blood: that it is not discoverable by the sight in an human body, nor in the bodies of terrestrial animals: the

the same completely seen in fishes, and the nature of it particularly described.'

'Of the formation of the teeth in several animals: the structure of the human teeth explained, and some of the disorders to which the same are liable accounted for.'

'On Coffee.'

'On Vinegar.'

'On the Scorpion.'*

'Of the Oak Gall, or Gall Nut: that it is not a fruit, but an excrescence produced on the leaves of the oak, by means of an insect: the manner of its formation particularly described: a similar excrescence produced in like manner on the thistle.'

'The author's opinion respecting the animalcule found in the livers of sheep infected with the disease, commonly called the Rot.'

'The author's opinion and reasoning respecting the formation of that species of fuel which is called Peat, and also with regard to the trees dug out of those places where peat is found: from whence he takes occasion to propose and discuss a question, whether the sea may not, in process of time, become more elevated in respect of the land.'

'On the effects of acids in the stomach, and the use of fish diet, with a particular description and examination of the liquor or substance named Runnet, which is used in the making of cheese.'

'Of the Snail or insect found on the vine, also of the nature of Sage, and whence its virtue proceeds; with some observations on the manner in which different animals emit their poison.'

'On Wheat, and the manner of its vegetation; the nature of the several component parts of that grain explained, and their figures described, as seen by the microscope.'

The contents of Part III. are:

'Of the Cocoa Tree, with its fruit, commonly called the Cocoa Nut.'

'On Hops.'

'On Cochineal.'

'An account of some pieces of Amber presented to the author; also of a substance resembling burnt paper, reported to have fallen out of the clouds in Courland.'

'Of the herb Periwinkle, wherein the opinion that it does not bear any seed, is refuted.'

'Of the root named *Pareira Brava.*

'On the formation of the crystalline humour of the eye, in various animals, birds, and fishes.'†

'On the internal formation of an ox's tongue: and on that of the heart, in animals, fowls, and fish.'

'On the eye of a whale, with the author's observations on the pressure of the sea-water at great depths.' ‡

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* To this paper an addition is made by the translator, extracted from Dr. Mead's Essay on Poisons.

† To this paper is added a long extract from Mr. Adams's Essay on Vision.

‡ We wish that the translator had corrected or animadverted on the bad philosophy contained in this essay.

'Of the Quills used in writing, and their feathers.'

'On Human Hair, and the hair and wool of animals.'*

'An extraordinary quantity of fish on the sea coast near Delft, noted by the author, with reasons assigned by him for the same.'

'Of the Nutmeg: the young plant in it discovered: the root of the nutmeg-tree examined and described; with some hints from the author respecting the best method of preserving nutmegs from being injured by insects.'

'On damaged Mace, commonly called white Mace; the cause from whence this defect arises, shewn to be an insect which feeds on the internal parts of the mace, with a particular description of that insect; and some farther account of the nutmeg.'

The matter of the present selection has been so long known, and so frequently considered, that we have been very sparing of criticism relative to the accuracy of M. Leeuwenhoek's observations, and the soundness of his philosophy; and we have given a list of the contents only to excite or to revive curiosity.

We cannot express our entire approbation of all the additions made by the translator. We think that references to the works of those authors, who have treated the subjects here discussed, would have been better than the quotations themselves; since, by mixing the thoughts and experiments of philosophers, their characters are liable to be confounded.

R. Wood.

ART. XIII. *A concise View, from History and Prophecy, of the great Predictions in the Sacred Writings, that have been fulfilled;* also of those that are now fulfilling, and that remain to be accomplished. By Francis Dobbs, Esq. Member for the Borough of Charlemont in Ireland. In Letters to his Eldest Son. 8vo. 6s. Boards. Sael and Co. 1800.

AFTER having taken a survey, more rapid than accurate, of the state of the world at different periods and in different nations, from the creation to the close of the 18th century, the author of this work proceeds to state his own ideas of the condition of mankind in future ages, which he professes to derive from the prophecies of the Old and New Testament. Of his application of these prophecies, we shall subjoin two or three specimens; by which the reader may judge of the contents of the volume in general, and of Mr. Dobbs's talents as an interpreter of Scripture.

Having cited several passages, which seem to predict the personal appearance of Christ on earth, the author is naturally led to inquire where and when this interesting event will

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* An extract from Hooke's Micrographia is added to this Memoir.

take place. From the description of the stone cut out of the mountain without hands in the 2d chapter of Daniel, he infers that the appearance of the Messiah will not be in any of those kingdoms which composed the Assyrian and Babylonish, the Medo-Persian, the Grecian, or the Roman Empires. In chap. xli. v. 25 of Isaiah, he discovers that this sacred personage will appear in a country north of Judæa, which must be Russia, Denmark, Sweden, or Ireland; and, from the following texts, viz. Rev. xiv. 2. xv. 2. xvi. 16. he concludes that Ireland is to be the favoured scene of the visible manifestation of Christ. Let the doubtful reader duly consider the author's arguments. The harp of David forms the arms of Ireland: the sea of glass denotes an island: no country in the world abounds so much in fine linen: the name of the Metropolitan city of Armagh sounds very like that of the place called in the Hebrew tongue *Armageddon*; and there is a remarkable co-incidence between the Irish words Ardmaceaddon and Armageddon, and in Irish the *c* is often put for *g*.—If the reader be not yet convinced, let him advert to the following peculiar circumstances: 'all the empires of the image (to which Daniel refers) rose west of each other, and the last kingdom that completed the image was Great Britain; and the stone is first to fall on the feet of the image; so that Ireland seems to be fitted, in all respects, for this great purpose; from its being still farther west, and from its vicinity to the last toe of the image.' Besides, St. Patrick, who established Christianity in Ireland, banished all venomous creatures from the land; so that none are found there, though they have been seen in the vicinity, viz. at Port Patrick in Scotland and at Holyhead in Wales; and 'this exemption from the serpent kind is strongly emblematic, that Satan, the great Serpent, is there to meet his first deadly blow.' Again; 'the crown of Ireland is the apostolic crown'—'it has been called immemorially the land of Saints'—'its name denotes that it is to be the scourge of a wicked world'—'the Giant's causeway is an emblem of the stone of David'—'the Jews were never persecuted in any degree in Ireland, and their persecutors have been and are to be peculiarly punished.'

As to the time of this event, a circumstance has occurred which induces the author to believe, he says, that it will happen in this year (1800) or the next; and that is, the law enacted by the British and Irish parliaments for uniting England and Ireland into one kingdom. 'This,' says he, 'appears to me contrary to the great designs of God; for it is making Ireland a part of the image of Daniel, which was completed (as he has before shewn, in the year 408). Now if so, no imperial law will ever have force in Ireland; and as the imperial parliament may meet

the 1st of January 1801, and in a month or two after pass a law that would be enforced in the ordinary course of things, I think that measure will be defeated by the appearance of the Messiah in Ireland.' It is scarcely necessary for us to observe that this period has passed; and that, up to the time of the present month (July), we have not heard of this predicted appearance.

The author has farther discovered that the attendants of the Messiah, on this occasion, will be collected from all the countries of the earth, and that their number will be 144,000. Among them will be found Moses, Aaron, David, Samuel, Daniel, the Apostles, and the Martyrs; who are not to be miraculously raised from the dead, but 'in the ordinary way to be literally born again.' Antichrist will also personally appear on this occasion; and this person is no other than Augustus the Roman Emperor, who was 'an able, polished villain, under whom was the summit of the heathen, or Satanic world.' Mr. Dobbs is persuaded 'that France is the country where that man shall appear, who leads the wicked of the world.' 'See (says he) how well all that has of late years been passing there accords with what is to come.' The retinue of this Arch-enemy will consist of millions, who will repair to his standard, and 'they will plume themselves on certain victory' over the 144,000 followers of the real Messiah. Great Britain will league for a while with the powers of Antichrist, but Mr. D. thinks that it will be the first to forsake them.

Among other peculiarities of this writer's system, one is 'that no man has lived since the flood, who was not in existence before it, and that all, both good and bad, have been born again subsequent thereto. The worst were regenerated in the line of Ham,'—'and the best were brought again into the world in the line of Abraham, his son Isaac, and his grandson Jacob.' This notion of living more than once is, in the author's opinion, the great key to the Scriptures; and he conceives himself warranted in saying 'that there is no man really sprung from Adam, and consequently from God, who made Adam, that is not written in the book of life; and destined to immortality.' The Messiah in the human part of his frame was Adam, and it pleased the Almighty to unite to the nature of Adam him who is styled his only son, before the creation of this world.—As all who sprang from Adam are to be saved, whence then proceeded those who join Antichrist, and make war against the Messiah? They are a new race, who had not their origin from God, but from Satan. Of this family, Cain was the progenitor: but Cain being the son of perdition, and the devil being also distinguished by this appellation, the devil

and

and Cain were the same person; and accordingly, the Jews have a tradition that Cain was produced by Eve and Satan. The author has also found out two Societies, which seem to be the stocks from which the respective followers of Christ and Antichrist are to issue. The one is known by the name of the Society of Avignon, which commenced in the year 1779, and the members of which declare that 'these are the glorious times when the Messiah is personally to appear, and restore all things.' 'They affirm that all the old prophets, apostles, and martyrs are now upon the earth, and have been literally born again. They say the personal Antichrist is also on the earth, and the council of seven, who direct their affairs, declare they know him.' A Polish nobleman, who is at the head of this Society, is believed to be Moses; and another of the seven is Aaron. They pretend to an intercourse with good spirits; and the other Society, which is that of the Illuminati, hold intercourse with evil spirits, and are preparing the way for the advent of Antichrist. Mr. Dobbs had a conference with some of the members of the former; and they communicated to one another the extraordinary and similar visions with which they had been favoured: but with the latter Society he disclaims all connection.

Our readers will now, we apprehend, be able to form a competent judgment of the contents of the remaining pages of this volume; and, if they wish for farther amusement of this kind, they will there find a *satisfying* portion of it.

Rev.

ART. XIV. *A Summary of Universal History;* exhibiting the Rise, Decline, and Revolutions of the different Nations of the World, from the Creation to the present Time. Translated from the French of M. Anquetil, Member of the National Institute of France, and Correspondent of the Academy of Sciences and Belles Lettres. 8vo. 9 Vols. 3l. 12s. Boards. Robinsons. 1800.

IF a reader be in search of an historical work extracted immediately from the valuable remains of antiquity, he will in vain have recourse to the volumes which are now before us; or, if he would be contented with the production of a man who has gone over the ground of modern compilations with a critic's keen eye, and who has examined it with the light which the researches of later times have thrown on many distant events, he will still be dissatisfied with this publication: but, if he should require nothing more than a mere abridgment of those compilations, he will be pleased with these volumes, which comprize an elegant, and on the whole not an injudicious abstract of this kind.

M. Anquetil's summary is divided into two parts, the antient and the modern. Each country is treated under both of these divisions, and its history is narrated, before another is introduced. The work is, indeed, a collection of the separate accounts of each distinct nation.—He who would be thoroughly acquainted with history must study it in various forms. He may cast his eye over the vast field, as it is exhibited in a chart; he may survey the universal map of it, which a narrative divided into periods furnishes: but, in order to lay the foundation of proficiency, he must peruse and re-peruse books on the same plan with the present. Let him carefully digest such productions; and then, and not till then, will he be capable of profiting from others in which a different method has been pursued. In this view, we recommend M. Anquetil's compilation, on account of its plan, to young students of history; let them make it their companion, for a considerable time; and let them not return it to the shelf, till they are complete masters of its contents.

We were sorry to find the author entering deeply into accounts which have been justly considered as fabulous, and assigning to antient history a much greater proportion of his work, than to the modern: but we were pleased to observe that he is totally free from that scepticism which has over-run all descriptions of men in France, particularly the lettered class.

As specimens of M. Anquetil's manner, we shall lay before our readers his account of the Achæan league, under the head of *antient* history; and under that of *modern*, we shall transcribe his account of the present state of Malta:

'Achaia was the centre of the most durable confederacy that has existed. The genius of its inhabitants, and those of the neighbouring countries, as well as their respective position, must certainly have been peculiarly favourable to such an association, since it began in the time of Gyges, their last king, that is to say, at the termination of the heroic ages, and continued till the reign of Alexander. When destroyed by that conqueror it was revived under the name of *the Achæan league*, and supported itself with distinguished honour, till it at length sunk beneath the enormous power of the Romans.

'This league originally comprehended all the provinces on the continent, properly called Greece; that is, Attica, Megaris, Locris, Phocis, Bœotia, Ætolia, and Doris. It was afterwards bounded by the bay of Corinth, Sicyon, and Elis.'—

'The Romans courted the favour of the Achæan league, from political views, as long as they feared it should succour Perseus king of Macedon, with whom they were at war; but when they had conquered that prince, they ceased their complaisance, or rather commenced those acts of injustice which, in the end, rendered them masters of Greece. They not only excited the different cities to make war on each other, but even maintained fatal dissensions

dissensions in the very heart of those cities. Their partisans were certain of being supported, however unjust their pretensions. They suborned the slaves against their masters, kept infamous informers in their pay, and soon it became a crime to have failed in attachment to the interest of the Romans. They drew up lists of proscribed persons, and sent commissioners appointed to carry their secret sentence into execution. In a public assembly of the Achæans, one of the commissioners had the insolence to require that all those who had assisted Perseus should be previously condemned, after which he said he would name them. "Name them after they are condemned!" exclaimed the assembly; "is that justice? Begin by naming them, and let them defend themselves. If they can allege nothing in their justification, we promise to condemn them." "You promise," replied the commissioner, "why all your general officers, all who have held any employment in your republic, have been guilty of that crime." Xenon, a person of great credit, and extremely respected by the whole league, then rose, and said: "I have commanded the army; I have had the honour to be the chief magistrate of the league; and I protest that I have never done any thing contrary to the interest of Rome. If any one can bring a charge against me, I am ready to justify myself; either here, before the assembly of the Achæans, or, at Rome, before the senate." The commissioner immediately laid hold of the latter expression, and said: "Since Xenon has named the senate, he and the other persons accused cannot appeal to a more equitable tribunal." He then named those who were accused, and ordered them to appear and plead their cause before the senate. They were more than a thousand in number, all men of distinguished merit, and this was their only crime.

'Their departure was a very severe blow to the Achæan league. When they arrived in Italy they were distributed in different cities, where they were kept prisoners as if they had already been condemned. The council of Achaia sent deputies to Rome to require that their cause might be heard; but the senate replied, with equal treachery and falsehood, that the exiles had been found guilty in Achaia, and had been only sent to Rome to know what punishment should be inflicted on them. The Achæans then sent a solemn embassy, which embarassed the senate; but still they answered, that it was not the interest of the Achæans that the exiles should return to their country. To another embassy, which descended to supplications, the inexorable senate gave the same refusal; and these repeated solicitations had no other effect than to render their slavery more rigid. Seventeen years passed in fruitless applications, till the exiles were reduced to about three hundred; when Polybius, who was one of these unfortunate persons, and who had rendered services to Paulus Æmilius in the education of his children, obtained, by his influence, that the affair should be brought before the senate. Cato, in complaisance to young Scipio, promised to support the petition. When it was presented, the conscript fathers were divided in their opinion; however it appeared that the majority was unfavourable; when Cato rose up, and assuming an air of great gravity, said; "The world must surely think we have nothing at all to do, to see us debating

with so much warmth whether some poor old Greeks shall be buried in Italy or in their own country."

'This pleasantry made the senate ashamed of disputing any longer, and the petition was granted. Polybius was for supplicating the senate to decree that, on their arrival in Achaia, they should be reinstated in all their offices and dignities; but before he presented his request he asked the advice of Cato, who said to him, with a smile: "Polybius, you do not imitate the wisdom of Ulysses: you wish to return into the cave of the Cyclops, to fetch away some wretched tatters you have left there."

Concerning Malta, he thus writes:

'The island of Malta was inhabited formerly by the nymph Calypso. Though nearer to Sicily, from which it is only fifteen leagues distant, it is assigned, without any just reason, to Africa, its distance from which is fifty. It is about twenty leagues in circumference. The soil is barren, being composed partly of sand and partly of rock, covered with very little earth, full of stones, and unfit for the cultivation of any kind of grain. It produces figs, melons, oranges, and honey. To the north-west, separated from it by a channel a league and a half in breadth, lies the island of Goza, which is about eight leagues in circumference; and in this channel are the small isles of Comin and Comino. The former is a league in circumference; the other is less. Lampedosa, five or six leagues in circumference, lying at the distance of twenty-five or thirty leagues from Malta, is barren and uninhabited.

'The southern coast of Malta has neither road nor harbour. Some good harbours, however, are found to the east; and there is an excellent port divided into two parts, commanded by fort St. Elmo. When it was taken possession of by the knights it contained only one city, with a few towns, and about twelve thousand inhabitants. At present it has four cities inclosed by walls. The hamlets have become villages; and the villages large towns. The air is exceedingly salubrious, being always cooled by the sea-breezes. There are no rivers in the island; but it has excellent springs: water is collected also in cisterns. Every creek and corner where an enemy might enter is strongly fortified and guarded. The cities, which are built with taste and elegance, are well defended also. They contain beautiful churches, large and commodious hospitals, arsenals supplied with all kinds of stores; in a word, every thing necessary either in time of peace or of war.

'The character given of the Maltese ladies implies, to speak in the softest terms, that they are fond of gallantry. I do not mean to say that they are amorous, but that they are tempting. Their husbands are not much pleased with this conduct; which indeed is very little directed towards them. They are jealous: but before marriage they carry about their intended spouses with confidence to the most public places, and affect to allow them a great deal of liberty. When married, however, they are narrowly watched, and those who approach them, even if they are knights, have to dread the dagger or poniard. The Maltese are robust, healthful, lively, brave,

brave, and warlike. A signal given by firing three cannons is sufficient to call forth twenty-five thousand men, all well armed, and to place each at his post, with which they are thoroughly acquainted. They are said to be of Arabic extraction, and they speak that language; but in the towns the most common dialect is the Italian. The Maltese subsist by the culture of a few productions, and by commerce; but what contributes most to the flourishing state of their island is the residence of the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, called commonly the knights of Malta.'

The knights having been expelled from Rhodes, we are told that

'After many negociations, in which the disinterestedness of Charles V. does not appear to much advantage, he ceded to them the island of Malta, under the burthensome condition of their undertaking the defence of the city of Tripoli, which required a strong garrison and great expence. The grand-master, not being able to do any thing better, accepted the proposed terms. The order took possession of the island in 1530; and acquired from it the name of the knights of Malta, which they still retain. Villiers de l'Isle Adam employed himself in fortifying the island, which he found in a defenceless state, and died at a very advanced age. The following epitaph was inscribed on his tomb: "Here lies virtue, victorious over fortune."

'The precations taken by l'Isle Adam to fortify the new residence of the order, served to defeat a second enterprize of Soliman. Being incensed to find that these pretended pirates, of whom he wished to clear the neighbouring seas by taking Rhodes, continued to infest them, he gave orders to Sinan Bassa, whom he had sent to besiege Tripoli, to destroy in his passage that nest of robbers; but when Sinan had landed and considered attentively the castle of St. Angelo, and the bulwarks, he said to the corsair Dragut, who pressed him to begin an attack: "Dost thou see that castle? The eagle certainly could not place its nest on the summit of a steeper rock; to reach it we ought to have wings like the eagle, for all the troops in the world would never be able to force it." That he might not, however, entirely disoblige Dragut, Sinan ravaged the island and laid siege to the capital; but the gallant resistance of the inhabitants obliged him to retire.

'Soliman still made against the order in 1565, under John de la Valette, the forty-seventh grand-master, the last important attack which it experienced. A man who should sit down in his closet, to imagine the most unexpected and singular events that could take place, in the course of a siege, would not be able to invent any more extraordinary than those which have been traced out by the historian of Malta. He did not resolve to write this kind of romance till after waiting a long time in vain for the real memoirs which had been promised him; and he said when they arrived: "They are too late; I am sorry for it; my siege is completed." This anecdote, if true, may serve to keep us on our guard against those historians who are too fond of panegyric; but though the details may be heightened, it is certain that greater firmness, bravery, and activity could not be displayed, than

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were exhibited by the grand-master and his knights. Lavalette was wounded in the breach, and when some of his friends wished him to retire, he replied: "At the age of seventy-one, can I finish my life more gloriously than by dying with my brethren?" The Turks being repulsed with the utmost bravery, withdrew never again to appear on that land, which had been drenched with their blood; and Lavalette on the principal emplacement, the theatre of his glory, built a town, which, after his own name, he called Lavalette. The convent and habitation of the knights were removed thither. In order that the work might not be interrupted, when money failed, they paid in copper, which was afterwards called in and the full value given for it. The inscription on it was *Non æs, sed fides:* it is not the metal, but confidence.

'In 1724, a truce was concluded with the Turks for twenty-one years, subject to renewal if the parties should think proper. While it continued, the Maltese were to enjoy, in the states of the grand seignior, the same privileges as the French. They stipulated also for the exchange and ransoming of slaves. The sultan agreed not to give any assistance to the Barbary states; and the treaty was to be void when any of the Christian princes were at war with the Porte. Malta has lately surrendered to the French, and in all probability the order will be destroyed for ever.'

In printing this work, it would have been much more agreeable and useful if the head-line of each page had been made to indicate the subject under discussion, instead of repeating throughout the general title of *Universal History*.—This is an useless custom among Printers.

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ART. XV. *Essays on the Venereal Disease and its concomitant Affections.* Part II. *: containing additional Evidence, with critical and practical Remarks on the new saline antisyphilitic Remedies; and an Answer to some Objections made against the former Part. By William Blair, A. M. F. M. S. Surgeon to the Lock Hospital, Asylum, &c. 8vo. pp. 352. 6s. Boards. Johnson. 1800.

IN this volume, Mr. Blair has continued his plan of producing statements from various practitioners, to invalidate the evidence in favour of the *new remedies*, (as they are called,) in cases of syphilis. As we have already delivered our sentiments on this subject, as far as it seemed necessary to declare them, in reviewing Dr. Beddoes's late publication †, we shall content ourselves with giving a summary view of the facts mentioned by Mr. Blair; leaving our readers to draw their own conclusions. With the controversial part of the book we shall not interfere; and happy would it be, if we could prevail on au-

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* See M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxvii. p. 455. † Ib. for June last, p. 137.

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thors to regard these literary skirmishes in their true point of view, as efforts thrown away.

Mr. Blair commences with fifteen cases of ven. dis., in which nitrous acid, and oxymuriate of potash, were given by Mr. Macartney; and in some of these, the acid produced ptyalism. He concludes, from the result of the whole, that the new remedies are incompetent to effect a radical cure of this disease.—We are next presented with several cases from Dr. Rowley, Mr. Phillips, and Dr. Hooper, in which the acid failed to remove secondary symptoms of lues. Its power of producing ptyalism, however, is confirmed by them.—The next section contains miscellaneous evidence to the same purpose: but perhaps the cases are here too little detailed. Dr. Rollo, however, announces (without stating particulars) the cure of upwards of 70 patients, by the new remedies.—By a report of the result of 90 cases from Dr. Mitchell, garrison-surgeon at Chatham, it appears that the acid is more successful in removing the primary than the secondary symptoms. Letters from Mr. Blizard, Mr. Foote, Mr. Heaviside, and other practitioners, follow; which are in general unfavourable to the new system.

The second chapter contains an abstract of the additional evidence published by Dr. Rollo, in the new edition of his Essay on Diabetes (see Rev. N. S. vol. xxx. p. 348.): but, as this is controversial matter, we shall proceed to the next chapter;—which contains an analysis of Dr. Beddoes's *first* reports respecting the effects of the nitrous acid in syphilis. As the *last* reports on this subject, from India, have materially altered the state of the question, by bringing the anti-venereal power of the acid to the simple test of immersion, we shall add nothing to what we have already observed on Dr. Beddoes's last work, in our Review for the preceding month.

In the second section, M. Alyons's cases and observations are examined. This gentleman, it is well known, is an avowed enemy to the employment of mercury in syphilis; and he supplies its place by an oxygenated lard, prepared by boiling nitric acid with melted hog's lard, and by the internal use of nitric acid.—From a review of his cases, however, Mr. Blair dismisses them as inconclusive.

In the course of his remarks on these and other facts, the author observes that it is by applying the new remedies to the removal of secondary symptoms, that their efficacy must be ascertained.—He adds:

'I regard the enquiry into the antisyphilitic qualities of the new medicines as decided in the negative, by their proving insufficient for the *permanent* cure of a confirmed syphilis: consequently, it cannot be

be assumed that they are *antivenereal*, merely from their appearing to be completely efficacious in many cases of the recent disease. Various causes may concur to prevent the absorption of venereal matter, where chancres, buboes, or gonorrhœa exist; so that the constitution may possibly not become infected, under any common plan of treatment, nor even in some totally neglected patients. This remark has often been confirmed in my own practice: and I lay considerable stress upon this fact, because the issue of the present controversy very much depends upon it: though I do not infer from thence, that mercury (a true antisyphilitic remedy) may be always dispensed with in primary symptoms; nor that, "in ninety-nine cases out of a hundred, the disease cures itself." But the conclusion I draw from the success of numerous trials made with the acid and oxygenated muriate of potash, in primary symptoms, is—that topical means of cure, accompanied with appropriate internal remedies, will very frequently, if not generally, supersede the necessity of employing mercury. Perhaps this rule may be applied to a much greater extent than we have hitherto suspected; and I think the idea is strengthened by the consideration that ALL the local symptoms which appear "post coitum cum fœda muliere" (to use the words of an old writer) existed, and were cured without mercury, long before the *lues venerea* had been witnessed in any part of Europe.'

In a controversy of this nature, in which experience is quoted in contradiction to experience, and the authority of respectable names is affixed to statements of the most opposite tendency, it does not become us to pronounce definitively. A short time must settle the question; and we shall only add that, however the contest may terminate, the public are under great obligations to the writers on both sides, who have exerted so much industry and attention in order to bring it to an issue. Fer.r

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ART. XVI. *Observations on the Effects of various Articles of the Materia Medica, in the Cure of Lues Venerea:* illustrated with Cases. By John Pearson, Senior Surgeon of the Lock Hospital and Asylum, &c. 8vo. pp. 188. 4s. 6d. Boards. Callow. 1800.

AFTER the perplexity occasioned by the contradictory statements laid before the public by respectable writers, concerning the efficacy of some anti-syphilitic remedies, we receive with particular satisfaction the reports of a cool and accurate observer; whose extensive experience in venereal complaints, united with great candour and sagacity, must give uncommon weight to his testimony. Our account of this valuable work has been so long delayed by unforeseen accidents, that we now only re-echo the approbation with which its merits have been stamped by the faculty; and to such of our medical readers as have not yet seen it, we must recommend a careful perusal of the whole. A book of such importance, however,

However, must not be dismissed by us without giving at least an outline of its contents.—In a well-written introduction, the author has displayed the absurdities and dangers of the antient methods of treating venereal complaints. In the course of his observations, he hints his opinion that the disease was not imported from the West-Indies; and he promises a complete treatise on this disease, which the able execution of the present work induces us to expect with anxiety.—Respecting the history of mercurial medicines, we meet with the following observations:

'Amidst the several discordant opinions which have been maintained and defended, concerning the most successful mode of treating Lues Venerea, the fortunes of Mercury have been various and fluctuating. With a certain proportion of medical practitioners, it maintained a steady and undiminished reputation: by many, it was disparaged and undervalued, as a mineral possessed of no decided efficacy; and, by some, the administration of it was exploded altogether. Even in the time of Morgagni, this medicine was interdicted by some of the most eminent physicians in Italy; and strong prejudices against the use of it subsisted, according to the testimony of Murray, so late as the middle of the present century.

'How far reason, or fashion, or caprice, was predominant in conducting to such a determination, I presume not to decide: certain it is, that notwithstanding the puny clamours of ignorance, the crafty discourse of interested empiricism, and even the imperious voice of authority, Mercury continues to this day the medicine commonly employed, and alone relied on, in all truly venereal cases. And, although there are many who pretend to exclude it from their nostrums, yet their perfidious declarations are occasionally betrayed by the salivating qualities of that mineral, which, in defiance of every disguise and combination, will sometimes appear, to the detection of the impostor.

'In asserting the preference due to Mercury, as an antivenereal remedy, before all others yet introduced into practice, I neither intend to deny, nor to conceal, that real inconveniencies are sometimes connected with the administration of that medicine. There are certain peculiarities of constitution, where its irritating qualities predominate over its medical ones, and where the mode of its agency seems rather calculated to distress the patient, and to injure the health, than to remove the disease for which it is exhibited: hence, it were highly desirable to acquire a medicine equally potent as an antivenereal, and not possessing certain active properties peculiar to that mineral. But this concession forms no valid objection against Mercury exclusively.

'There are other articles of the materia medica, which produce ill effects on the animal system, even when administered with the utmost skill and judgment. It is sufficiently known, that Antimony, Ipecacuanha, Peruvian Bark, Opium, Digitalis, Rhubarb, Magnesia, Honey, &c. when brought into conflict with certain idiosyncrasies, will excite great and serious mischief; the primary and direct effect of these medicines, on one or more parts of the animal system, militating

tating absolutely against their medicinal qualities. But, exceptions of this kind make no impressions upon the minds of considerate men, unfavourable to the generally acknowleged merits of these drugs: they note the particular instances, and substitute other medicines in their stead, which possess qualities corresponding to the indication.

'The wish which I have expressed, that another medicine could be found, on which reliance could be placed, for the cure of Lues Venerea, does in no wise spring from any distrust of the sufficiency of Mercury; it originates merely from the same source which would induce me to desire, that the means of remedying every form of human misery, were abundantly multiplied.'

We could with pleasure extract much more on this subject, if our limits would permit: but we must content ourselves with transcribing the conclusion of the introduction:

'I presume that no well-informed man gives credit to a single assertion that has been made, by the writers quoted in the foregoing pages, concerning the extraordinary agency of sudorifics, of change of climate, of regimen, or of natural crises, in curing the venereal disease; yet all these vague and unsatisfactory narratives and sentiments, have been copied, or referred to, by a number of succeeding authors, without any expressions of disapprobation annexed to them. It is greatly to be regretted, that men truly learned and deservedly eminent, have been so frequently seduced into a concurrence with opinions which they never fairly examined, and have given an avowed, or at least a tacit assent, to practices of the merit of which they were not competent to judge.

'This unwary mode of proceeding is certainly reprehensible in all cases; but especially where the health and lives of mankind are so nearly concerned; and the laws of strict integrity require, that the history of diseases, and the effects of remedies, should be recorded with the same sacred regard to truth and correctness, with which all testimony ought to be delivered in a court of judicature.

'No men are so prone to indulge in fanciful speculations, as those that are without practice; for, having little occasion to bring their notions to the test of actual experience, they proceed boldly in forming splendid and attractive theories, without the least fear of those consequences, which would be apprehended by men of an established reputation, and long experience. A man should be endowed with a lively genius, a comprehensive mind, and a talent for discerning the relations of things, in all the various divisions of the scale, and of combining them into a regular, uniform, and coherent structure, in order to model hypotheses with tolerable success; whereas the licentious indulgence of a vigorous fancy, may prove extremely incommodious to a mere narrator of facts, whose office it is to communicate what he knows, with plainness and simplicity; where patience and sagacity in observing the order and method of nature, a clearness of conception, and, above all, an inflexible fidelity, are requisites without which the most shining qualities are of no value.'

The first remedy particularly discussed is the celebrated *Lignum Guaiaci*. After a short history of this medicine, which

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retained its fame during two centuries, and was once generally preferred to Mercury, Mr. Pearson thus announces the result of his own experience with it:

'The decoction of Guaiacum will often suspend the progress of certain secondary symptoms of lues venerea, for a short time; such as, ulcers of the tonsils, venereal eruptions, and even nodes; but I never saw one single instance, in which the powers of this medicine eradicated the venereal virus. It has been recommended by many people, to combine guaiacum with mercury, with the intention of improving the specific powers, and of counteracting the injurious effects, of that mineral: the advantages to be derived from this compound mode of treatment, are by no means well established; for Guaiacum is certainly no antidote against syphilis; nor have any proofs been given to the public, of its meliorating the action of mercury. When the decoction is given during the mercurial course, it sometimes seems to improve the health; but as it is very liable to produce complaints in the stomach and bowels, the palpable inconveniencies commonly surpass the uncertain advantages connected with it; and, as no previous course of the decoction renders the disease milder, nor authorizes us to rest satisfied with a smaller quantity of mercury than usual, it will seldom happen, that a satisfactory reason can be assigned, for giving the two medicines to a patient at the same time. In concluding this chapter, I would farther remark, that I have given the decoction of Guaiacum, with the best effects, to a great number of patients, in cutaneous diseases, in the ozaena, and in scrofulous affections of the membranes and ligaments; and it appears to me, that it is equally efficacious in such morbid alterations, which are not at all connected with the lues venerea, nor with the mode of treating it, as in those cases for which it has been the most highly celebrated.'

The *Radix Chinæ* is briefly noticed, as having gained a temporary reputation.

The next chapter is employed on *Sarsaparilla;* the use of which was revived about fifty years ago, by Dr. Hunter and Sir Wm. Fordyce: but Mr. Pearson has not found that this root has the power of curing any one form of the Lues; and he explains the apparent benefit derived from its use, in certain cases, in a very probable manner:

'The contagious matter, and the mineral specific, may jointly produce in certain habits of body, a new series of symptoms, which, strictly speaking, are not venereal; which cannot be cured by mercury; and which are sometimes more to be dreaded, than the simple and natural effects of the venereal virus. Some of the most formidable of these appearances may be sometimes removed by Sarsaparilla, the venereal virus still remaining in the system; and, when the force of that poison has been completely subdued by mercury, the same vegetable is also capable of freeing the patient, from what may be called, the sequelæ of a mercurial course.'

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This opinion is confirmed by several cases, which well deserve the attention of practitioners.

Of *Mezereum*, the author speaks less favourably, and he seems to rate its usefulness very low.

The *Cinchona* is mentioned as adapted to those circumstances of the disease, in which venereal sores are disposed to take a gangrenous form.

The pretended antisyphilitic powers of *Opium* are here rejected; and its effect, as an auxiliary to mercury, is justly ascribed to its power of soothing pain, and lessening irritation.

Cicuta is rejected by Mr. Pearson as an antisyphilitic, but it is said to be useful when sores have lost their syphilitic character, and owe their duration to other causes.

Several other reputed remedies, such as *Sassafras*, *Lobelia syphilitica*, &c. are dismissed with a summary notice of their inefficacy.

The *Volatile Alkali*, which was warmly recommended several years ago by M. Peyrilhe and others, proved, with Mr. Pearson, to possess the power of suspending some symptoms, but to be inadequate to the removal of the disease.

Mr. Pearson has given the *Muriated Barytes* with advantage, in some cases, in which he could not at first decide whether the disease were venereal or not: but he places no dependance on this medicine for the ultimate cure.

The author introduces his remarks on certain preparations of *Mercury*, with some very sensible and candid observations:

'Those who are persuaded of the existence of antivenereal virtues in all, or in any of those articles of the materia medica which have been mentioned in the preceding pages, probably, may not deem the facts therein recited, such as to require them to yield up the opinions they have formed.

'They may contend, since I have conceded the power of suspending the progress of Syphilis, and of conferring a temporary benefit at least, upon venereal patients, to the greater part of the medicines taken notice of, that this concession amounts to an acknowledgment of their specific qualities; and that, if they really do good, and successfully oppose the destructive progress of the virus, though with certain limitations, they may, when conjoined with Mercury, increase its medicinal virtue, and give more certainty to its action on the animal system.

'It may likewise be alleged farther, that the very same species of arguing which I have considered as valid, when employed against the specific efficacy of the various medicines taken from the vegetable, mineral, or animal kingdoms, may be retorted with equal advantage against the certain efficacy of Mercury, in venereal complaints; since relapses often occur, where that antidote has been employed; and instances frequently present themselves, where new venereal symptoms appear, during the continuance of a mercurial course,

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'There is much truth contained in these allegations; and it can excite no surprise, if persons possessed of few opportunities of comparing the medicinal powers of Mercury, with those of other remedies, should be induced to conclude, that facts like these, very fairly deprive Mercury of its exclusive claim to the rank of sole specific against the Lues Venerea.

'In replying to these objections, I would premise, that Mercury administered in any form, or after any method, or under any circumstances which ignorance or caprice may suggest, is not a certain antidote, that is, an infallible remedy, against Lues Venerea. When this medicine is under the direction of an unskilful man, it will fail of effecting a cure, perhaps more frequently than it will succeed; and, what is of considerable consequence to the welfare of the diseased person, the complaint will be generally exasperated by it, and rendered more untractable, than if no Mercury at all had been given.'—

'My opportunities of administering Mercury, have not extended to less than twenty thousand cases; and I feel myself fully authorized to assert, that it is a remedy always to be confided in, under every form of Lues Venerea; and, where we have only that one disease to contend with, that it is a certain antidote, and as safe in its operation as any other active medicine, drawn from the vegetable, or the mineral kingdom. Let me not be misunderstood here, as if I meant to say, that it is a certain and safe remedy in the hands of any one who undertakes to dispense it. Quite the contrary:—for a multitude of indisputable proofs might be adduced, that ignorance and error often render it one of the most precarious and mischievous medicines in use.'

On the contested virtues of the *Hydrargyrus Muriatus*, formerly the Corrosive Sublimate, Mr. Pearson appeals to the general opinion of the faculty, manifested by the disuse into which this preparation has fallen. He thinks that we ought never to depend on it for the cure of secondary symptoms.

Mercurial Fumigation is reckoned useful only as a topical application.

The ensuing chapter contains Observations on some Effects of Mercury. The author insists on the necessity of using friction diligently, in order to preserve the absorption of Mercury by the skin; and this, he thinks, is always best performed by the patient himself. He remarks that unrestrained exposure of the invalid to a dry, cool air, has a powerful effect in diminishing the medicinal powers: but it is useful to patients who are affected with the Mercurial Erethismus; of which Mr. P. has furnished us with a curious and interesting account, too long to be inserted here.

A short history is given, in Chapter VIII., of the use of Vegetable Acids in Venereal Cases: but Mr. Pearson has found them possessed of very little efficacy. The *Vitriolic Acid* has been employed by him to counteract some of the debili-

tating effects of Mercury, to heal ulcers which remained stationary after the venereal virus had been destroyed by mercury, and to check the mercurial ptyalism. He does not, however, regard it as a proper antisyphilitic.—The *Marine Acid* is stated to be useful in meliorating the appearance of venereal ulcers.

The last remedy considered is the *Nitrous Acid*, the properties of which have been lately the subject of so much discussion. (See the preceding article in this Review.)

Mr. Pearson relates four Cases, in which he used this medicine with apparent success: but his experience on the whole seems to have been unfavourable to its antisyphilitic powers. In the general conclusions, he thus delivers his opinion:

'The Nitric and Nitrous Acids have removed both the primary and secondary symptoms of Syphilis; and, in some instances, it seems that the former have not recurred, nor have secondary symptoms appeared, at the period they commonly shew themselves, when the cure has been imperfect. But, as far as my own experience extends, and that of many respectable friends, who are connected with large hospitals, a permanent cure has never been accomplished by these acids, where secondary symptoms have been present.

'The same acids, when exhibited with the utmost care and attention to many patients labouring under the primary symptoms of the venereal disease, and where they have agreed perfectly well with the stomach, have been nevertheless found inadequate to the cure of those symptoms. Indeed the failures which have occurred, both in my own practice and that of many of my surgical friends, have been so numerous, that I do not think it eligible to rely on the Nitrous Acid, in the treatment of any one form of the Lues Venerea.

'But, while I am obliged thus to detract from the supposed merits of the Nitrous Acid as an antidote against Lues Venerea, I would by no means wish to see it exploded as a medicine altogether useless in that disease.

'Where an impaired state of the constitution renders the introduction of Mercury into the animal system inconvenient, or evidently improper, the Nitrous Acid will be found capable of restraining the progress of the disease, while, at the same time, it will improve the health and strength of the patient. On some occasions, this acid may be given in conjunction with a course of mercurial inunction; and it will be found to support the tone of the stomach; to promote the appetite; to determine powerfully to the kidnies, and to counteract in no inconsiderable degree the effects of Mercury on the mouth and fauces. These advantages are by no means unimportant; and certainly entitle the gentlemen who have been active in promoting the introduction of this acid into general practice, to the gratitude of the public.'

The profession will undoubtedly feel themselves under great obligations to Mr. Pearson, for the valuable information which he has here afforded them.

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ART. XVII. *A Treatise of the relative Rights and Duties of Belligerent and Neutral Powers, in Maritime Affairs*: in which the Principles of the Armed Neutralities, and the Opinions of Hubner and Schlegel are fully discussed. By Robert Ward, Esq. Barrister at Law, Author of the Enquiry into the History and Foundation of the Law of Nations in Europe to the Age of Grotius *. 8vo. pp. 190. 5s. Boards. Butterworth. 1801.

ART. XVIII. *An Essay on Contraband*: being a Continuation of the Treatise of the relative Rights and Duties, &c. By R. Ward, Esq. 8vo. pp. 83. 3s. Wright, and Butterworth.

IF we do not question Mr. Ward's competence for the high literary department which he has here undertaken; if we allow that he wants not the historic knowlege, the general learning, the powers of reasoning and discrimination, nor the skill in composition, which are necessary to fill this station with propriety; yet it may be collected from an advertisement affixed to his first tract, that he is not master of one requisite which is as essential to ensure success as any of the qualifications above mentioned; viz. leisure. Had more time been devoted to these essays, we doubt not that his style would have been chargeable with fewer faults, and that the whole production would have been more clear, methodical, and concise. In reviewing his former publication, (see the note) we felt ourselves bound to bestow considerable praise on the author's talents, though we did not always coincide with him in judgment; and we expressed our opinion that it was "a work both of present merit and of future promise." This promise would probably have been fulfilled, if Mr. Ward had not now written under circumstances of haste and interruption.—We have daily occasion for lamenting this growing impropriety of sending crude compositions to the press. This mis-use of *precious* paper, this waste of the reader's time and money, this degradation of a noble art, which vitiates the taste of the age, and indisposes it from the cultivation of letters, is frequently committed without shame or compunction, and is a crying evil which calls for redress.—It is but just, however, to observe that, had not the tracts before us aspired to a rank superior to that of productions merely of the day, we should have refrained from censure, and have considered them as patriotic offerings creditable to the author's zeal and abilities. Yet, why should such sacrifices be made by members of a jealous and laborious profession, which will not be robbed, with impunity, of the time and exertions of those who follow it? Have we not Univer-

* See M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxi. p. 375.

sities, the various excellencies of whose renowned sons are so great that our vernacular tongue, in all its prolixity, has recently laboured in vain to do justice to them? Shall the naval rights of Britain be assailed in the manifestoes of courts and the productions of publicists; and shall no professor, no distinguished academic, come forwards to defend his country's cause, to confute the arguments, to expose the sophistry, and to silence the declamation, which have misled rulers and people?—We are seriously of opinion that the highest fame would be gained, and the highest service would be rendered, by the man who should develope the principles of maritime war, and establish its rights on their true basis.

Though the doctrines with regard to neutrals, for which Great Britain contends, are not only the established tenets on the subject, but are the most founded in reason and the best adapted to practice; yet it appears to us that they are somewhat stretched by our publicists, and that their importance to this country has been over-rated. Considering, however, the unfair manner of proceeding adopted by the august champions of innovation, and that Great Britain chose to resist their efforts, we heartily rejoice in the issue which has taken place.

To return to the work before us; the heads of Mr. Ward's present and future labours are thus stated:

'The alleged rights of Neutrals in maritime affairs, which I propose to examine, may be divided into several propositions, or general heads.

'I. That free ships make free goods, from which a corollary is derived, that Neutrals have a right to coast from port to port, and to trade from colony to colony, and from the colonies to the mother country of Belligerents, without being liable to search or detention, except for contraband of war.

'II. That contraband is confined to articles of exclusive and immediate service in war.

'III. That war means military war and commercial peace; that is, that no private property can be the subject of prize.

'IV. That the courts of the capturing Belligerent are not competent to entertain questions concerning Neutrals captured or detained upon the high seas.

'V. That the right of search is not a natural right, and is confined absolutely to the mere inspection of papers.

'VI. That the flag of the state is tantamount to all documentary parol and ocular evidence, and excludes all right of search whatever.

'VII. That whatsoever is done under cover of the flag, immediately excludes the supposed jurisdiction of the courts of prize, and becomes matter of representation between State and State.'

The first of these essays treats of Proposition I., which is considered by Mr. Ward as it relates to justice in general, to authorities

authorities, and to treaties. From the concessions of the advocates of neutral rights, he attempts to demonstrate the absurdity of the length to which they would carry these claims:

'Let us review Hubner *, in his very definition of Neutrality. 'Toute neutralité consiste dans une *inaction entière* rélativement à la guerre, et dans une impartialité exacte et parfaite, manifestée par les faits à l'egard des Belligérans; en tant q e cette impartialité a rapport à cette guerre même, et aux moyens directs de la faire.'

'Again, in the fourth grand division of the duties of Neutrality, he says, 'Le grand devoir de tout Etat Neutre, c'est quil doit faire tout son possible pour établir la paix; et que pour cet effet il doit employer sincèrement ses bons offices, *afin que la partie lesée obtienne satisfaction*, s'il se peut, si non, *que du moins la guerre soit bientôt terminée.*'

'Now, I would ask the common sense of any one man, lettered or unlettered, whether it is a proof of wishing to re-establish peace, or of a sincere employment of good offices, when one of the Belligerents begins to be pressed by the other, and, by consequence, to stand in need of all his military forces, at the expence of withdrawing a portion, or perhaps the whole of the strength and vigour which had been allotted before to the arts of commerce; that a Power, which had hitherto stood by, should step in, and do that for the Belligerent which he was no longer able to do himself? To come a little more into the detail and application of this argument, let us suppose, as was the case with France, a heavy duty upon foreign freight had formed an almost fundamental law of her own commercial code; which, in times of peace, was a kind of Navigation Act, amounting to an interdiction of foreign interference; and that, of a sudden, while engaged in war, wanting her sailors, perhaps her merchant-ships, for hostile expeditions, at the same time wanting the pecuniary and other sources of her trade, which would thus be extinguished, she applied to nations calling themselves neutral, by taking off this duty, or even by bounties, to carry on this trade. Here is a proof how necessary this trade is to her exigencies, and how impossible is it to preserve it, consistently with her warfare. But where is the man of plain understanding, and uninterested in the question, who would not determine, that if the Neutral accepted the offer, that instant he interfered in the war? But Neutrals do thus interfere, nay, they arm in order to support their interference. Adieu, then, to the boasted philanthropy of the Neutral, whose great duty is to do all he can for the re-establishment of peace!—Adieu to those good offices which he is sincerely to employ, in order that the injured party in the war should obtain satisfaction! For if, according to Hubner's supposition, they can tell which is the *partie lesée*, and in this case, he should happen to be the stronger of the two, able, as well as endeavouring, to do himself right, the Neutral, by interposiug his indirect, but not less powerful assistance in favour of the other, not only becomes a party in the cause, but on the very worst side of it!'

* A Danish Civilian, who wrote during the war of 1756.

In terminating the discussion under the head of Authorities, Mr. Ward observes:

'Here we close the account of the authorities upon this debated question, from the eleventh to the middle of the eighteenth century; during which long period, as far as can be judged from the positive evidence produced in its favour, and the little force of that evidence which is produced against it, the remark which was made in the outset of this section is confirmed, that the stream of the authorities is against the principle of the Armed Neutrality. I think we are nearest the truth in saying, that thus the matter rested until the middle of the last century, when, for the first time, Europe saw those principles of trade, which had been for a long time forcing themselves into practice by the express stipulations of treaty, contract, and convention, at length boldly brought forward as a matter of general right, founded, as the Armed Neutrality of 1780, said, in natural justice, and, as the Armed Neutrality of 1800 says, in the indissoluble ties of natural law. In consequence of this, it was no longer necessary for Maritime States to look to their treaties for the line of their duty, or the foundation of their privileges; but the convenient theory of right set up, rose far above all law; and by seeking the divine origin of reason, equity, and the general rights of mankind, endeavoured really to persuade Belligerents, that a Neutral might interfere in the war before their faces, and screen their enemy under his cloak, at the moment when he might be falling within their power.

'These privileges, founded on right, were first claimed by the King of Prussia in the war of 1745, and were developed at large in his minister's memorial to the Duke of Newcastle, 1752.

'That memorial disclosed the real pretensions of the Monarch by whose orders it was framed in the style which it assumed; from which might be collected, in fine, all that the King of Prussia found it convenient for himself to do, although in defiance of all that any King in the world had attempted in the same circumstances.'—

'A new law was absolutely broached, and Europe, for the first time, saw, in the following abridged questions, the embryos of the Armed Neutrality.

'I. Whether Belligerent ships could stop Neutrals on the high seas, search, or carry them into port, notwithstanding, from the exhibition of papers, that no contraband was on board?

'II. Whether they could detain them under pretext that they carried enemy's property?

'III. Whether the Courts of the capturing Belligerent are competent to decide upon the legality of the capture?

'IV. Whether the King could not confiscate the Silesian debt by way of reparation for the long delay of justice, and the unjust decisions of these Courts?

'And thus, after near six hundred years silence in Europe upon this great question as a principle in the Maritime Law, during which time almost every other principle had been started, canvassed, resisted, or confirmed, amidst the thousand revolutions of commercial states; after the very question itself had long been agitated with the greatest urgency as a point of *convention* between particular nations; it

it was at length fairly put forth in form, as a right belonging to all nations, claimable from nature and not from agreement, and by consequence so far superior in obligation, that treaties on the subject were to change their object, and stipulate, where change was necessary, the *reverse* of the principle, instead of the principle itself.

'England saw with astonishment this open and bold design to overturn all the received principles of her maritime rights and duties; and prepared to resist them, both by the firmness of her conduct and the soundness of her reasoning. At that time there were at the Court of London four illustrious men, learned in the laws of their country and of the world, of great integrity of life and faithfulness in all matters of representation. One of them was a judge of the realm in all matters of civil and public law, the rest the highest law-officers of the Crown. To these was confided the important charge of examining the argument by which such unheard of pretensions were to be supported, and to ascertain whether or not all Europe had been in a dream, when, in compliance with the authority of all her wise men, and the example of all her States, she had for so many ages admitted the contrary principles as received law.

'The answer which these learned men gave to all the propositions laid down by the Prussian Minister, is so well known to England, and so widely disseminated in Europe, that it is needless to repeat it. In this historical part of the argument, it is sufficient to say, that those excellent persons, to whom his Majesty had confided the defence of the maritime rights of his kingdom, most amply justified the confidence that had been reposed in them; by furnishing an answer to the Prussian allegations, of such force and authority, that the maritime law of Europe, for this time at least, stood unshaken.'—

'As a general rule, whenever the subject is considered in the abstract, the old opinion must ever prevail; and though confederacy should arm after confederacy, and treaty should succeed to treaty, until the fact actually happened, that every Maritime State of the world should agree to be bound by a different law; still the rule itself, if properly founded, would be impregnable and unassailable, wherever first principles are concerned. At the time we are treating of, Europe was so little prepared to deny this, or, what is more, to deny that the conduct of the preceding ages, and the writings of the Civilians, had been grounded entirely upon these first principles; that the Duke of Newcastle's letter, containing the answer to the Prussian Minister, was then considered, and will, I trust, ever be considered by dispassionate and disinterested persons, as a masterpiece of true and general law. Thus, at least, it was held by the greatest men of that time. Vattel, in speaking of the jurisdiction of courts in the countries which erect them, observes, that for another country to attempt to set aside their definitive sentence, is to attack the jurisdiction itself; on which account no prince ought to interpose in the causes of his subjects when in foreign countries; adding, by way of farther proof, 'la Cour d'Angleterre a établie cette maxime avec beaucoup d'évidence à l'occasion des vaisseaux Prussiens saisis et declarés de bonne prise pendant la derniere guerre.' And in the note upon this passage, he calls it, 'Un excellent morçeau de Droit de

Gens.' To this testimony of Vattel, we may add, in another country, that of Montesquieu; who, speaking of it in a private manner, as a mere literary man, in one of his familiar letters, says, it is considered as '*Reponse sans replique.*' There are, however, still stronger and irrefragable proofs of its general merit, its soundness of doctrine, and cogency of conclusion, in the conduct of Frederick II. himself. We have seen that his own minister at the Court of London had abandoned it as far as the principle immediately before us was concerned; and this probably, together with the force and weight of the answer in the minds of the different public men of Europe, induced him not to renew the subject. Certain it is, that not only these pretensions were never afterwards heard of, as founded in principle, until the Armed Neutrality of 1780; but the King of Prussia gave the most convincing proofs of conviction, by relinquishing the immediate pretensions for which he had directed the Exposition des Motifs to be prepared. The interest of the Silesian loan was no longer withheld, but from that time regularly discharged.'

On the ground of treaties previously to 1780, the matter stood thus:

'Not less than thirty-four treaties passed between the various Maritime States, from the year 1715 to 1780, which take no notice of the principle before us; and these, in addition to thirty-one, which were formed between 1715 and 1642, the epoch whence Schlegel, on the authority of Busch, commences the series of contrary conventions, make in all no less than sixty-five. Seven are to be added, which were actually adverse. And the maxim is, therefore, either positively denied, or totally unnoticed by as many as seventy-two. Granting, then, what is not improbable (calculating upon the ground which has here been pursued) that there are thirty-five treaties favourable to the principle, what is to become of the proof that it forms so considerable a majority as, of necessity, to make the rule for all countries not bound? The power of thus binding them, our principles have wholly denied, into whatever proportion, on the one side or the other, the treaties may be divided. But it seems not a little extraordinary, that so new a paradox should be started as law, with such fragile foundations even as to the fact!'

The inconsistent conduct of the framers and abettors of the armed neutrality affords triumphant matter to Mr. Ward, of which he does not neglect to make good use.

In his second tract, the author introduces much unnecessary and ungrateful discussion on the legality of attempting to starve a nation. We are astonished that any man's reason and humanity should suffer him to dwell on a topic not less useless than odious; since the attempt will ever be as abortive as it must be detestable. To mix extravagancies of this sort with the present cause is to betray it. Perfectly distinct from this inquiry, is the fair question whether, in certain cases, corn and other provisions may not rank under the denomination of contraband of war.

In

In the doctrine which the author lays down on the subject of pre-emption, the inclination to rigour again manifests itself. He maintains that this practice does not arise from any right in the neutral, but is a matter *ex gratiâ* on the part of the belligerent. We deem it more just to view this treatment in the light in which it generally has been regarded, as founded in justice; and as no more than what the neutral has an absolute right to demand, as far as his natural exports are concerned.—Mr. Ward complains that, on the subject of contraband, publicists have dealt too much in generalities. The accusation is well founded: but it is not a little curious that the complainant himself should be not less liable to it than his predecessors.

Jo...

MONTHLY CATALOGUE,

For JULY, 1801.

EDUCATION.

Art. 19. *Instructive Rambles in London and the adjacent Villages*, designed to amuse the mind and improve the Understanding of Youth. By Elizabeth Helme. 12mo. 4s. bound. Longman and Rees. 1800.

THIS volume is as unexceptionable in its composition and execution, as it is praiseworthy in its object; and we think that Mrs. Helme has been successful in fulfilling the purpose expressed in her title-page, of composing a work which should 'amuse the mind and improve the understanding of youth.'

O.W.

Art. 20. *A complete Introduction to the Knowledge of the French Language*, containing the Substance of the most approved Grammars; such as Chambaud, Salmon, Porney, Perrin, Restaut, Wanostrocht, Waily, Abbé de Levizac, &c. &c. in which their different Rules and Observations are selected and compressed within a smaller Compass than in any Work of a similar Nature. It is divided into two Parts, grammatical and syntactical; the first contains the Inflection of Words; the second the Rules of the Language, with appropriate Exercises to each Rule, and a recapitulatory Exercise to each Part of Speech. The whole is arranged on the most perspicuous and simple Plan, perfectly adapted to the Capacity of the infant Mind. By George Crabb, Author of a German Grammar, and Teacher of the Classics at Carlisle-House School. Vol. I. 12mo. 3s. 6d. bound. Johnson.

The multiplication of rules, and the attempt to embrace within them all the possible varieties of a language, leaving nothing for the scholar to learn by the mere force of practice and experience, seem to have constituted too prevalent a mistake with the writers of French Grammar. As books of reference, such grammars are useful: but, if meant to be committed to the memory, they appear to us not only useless, but to be stumbling blocks in the way of a learner.

It is difficult to determine how much, or how little, may or should be taught by means of grammatical rules: but we are disposed to concur in Mr. Locke's opinion, that the less the better. Be this, however, as it may, the simple and concise manner in which Mr. Crabb appears to have executed his work entitles it to approbation. O.W.

Art. 21. *A Guide from the English Language to the French, or a French Grammar;* wherein those Cases only are treated, on which the two Syntaxes do not agree; and the Rules are particularly adapted to the Genius of the English Language. By F. Henry. 12mo. 2s. 6d. sewed. Dulau and Co. &c.

We approve the principle on which this work proceeds, in treating only those cases in which the French syntax presents a construction different from that of the English: but we think that, in the execution of this design, the author has shewn too much refinement in the division of his rules, which he has multiplied without end. We doubt not, however, that the learner would find it useful for reference, when practising composition; though we cannot recommend the general use of it as a grammar. Do

Art. 22. *Geiuadur Saesneg a Chymraeg.* An English and Welsh Dictionary, in which the English Words, and, sometimes, the English Idioms and Phraseology, are accompanied by those which synonymise or correspond with them in the Welsh Language. The whole carefully compiled from the best Sources and Materials; with a view of forming an agreeable Companion for the Welsh Youth of both Sexes, and for Welsh Readers in general. By William Richards, M. A. Small 8vo. pp. 407. 5s. V. Griffiths.

This manual, as far as we have examined it, appears to be correct, and in every way well calculated to answer the purposes for which it was designed: though we were disappointed in finding in it so few of the antient British names of towns and cities. We congratulate the public on the acquisition of a compilation so useful, and so accessible: but, as it may tend to accelerate the period when this antient and venerable language shall become extinct, we will take this occasion of expressing a wish, which we strongly feel, that some able and industrious scholar, in the bosom of the Principality, would direct his studies to illustrate the antiquities of his respectable and brave nation, its literature, and its language. It is well known that English books, on all kinds of subjects, are translated into Welsh without difficulty; that the Welsh version of the Bible is equal to any modern one; and that the Cambrian edition of parts of Quevedo's Visions has been so ably executed, that it retains the spirit and the ease which bespeak original composition. We should be glad to have this antient language considered in regard to its structure, its copiousness, and its refinement. While other living tongues have been improving, this has been on the decline: but it was once the language of a very considerable part of Europe; and while there were so many barbarous dialects, disdained by the learned, and hardly intelligible at this day among the descendants of those who spoke them, this prevailed in its greatest purity, as appears from numerous manuscripts which have escaped the ravages of time, and the rage of hostile powers. Jo...

Art.

Art. 23. *The Teacher's Assistant in English Composition*; or easy Rules for writing Themes and composing Exercises on Subjects proper for the Improvement of Youth of both Sexes at School. By John Walker, Author of the Critical Pronouncing Dictionary, &c. 12mo. pp. 230. 2s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons, &c. 1801.

We agree with Mr. Walker that 'the power of putting our thoughts upon paper, in a clear and agreeable manner, is of sufficient importance in life to form part of a polite education;' and that 'the moment young people can read fluently, and talk upon common subjects, they may be enabled to write upon them; and nothing but the habit is wanting. It is true the path must be smoothed for them; we must not expect them to invent matter: what they write must be infused into them, and what we infuse must be of the easiest kind, and so connected that one part will naturally suggest another: when a subject is thus prepared, it will be easy, even for a child, to set it down from memory upon paper; and when once a habit of doing this is acquired, the greatest difficulty is over. By degrees they will naturally supply with their own words those they do not remember, and soon begin to think upon a subject for themselves.'

The present publication contains a set of themes, easy essays, and a collection of narratives, which, according to the plan of the author, are to be read over to the pupil by the teacher, and to be afterward written by the former from memory as well as he is able. We know of no plan more likely to give the scholar an early fluency of expression, and a ready command of language: but we should have been disposed to have inverted the order in which Mr. Walker has arranged his materials, and to have begun with the narratives and ended with the themes: which, we think, would have been the mode best adapted to all capacities. Mr. Walker, however, is of opinion that, where the pupil has sufficient ability, the order which he has given is the best; because 'it tends to give a precision of thinking, and to keep the mind from wandering too widely from the subject, which many pupils are apt to do, who have a great facility of expression, but a want of closeness of thinking.' The principle, indeed, on which he has proceeded, is in our judgment an excellent one; and it may be modified in its application, according to the discretion of the teacher.

O.W.

MEDICAL, *&c.*

Art. 24. *Some Observations on Vaccination, or the Inoculated Cow-pox.* By Richard Dunning, Surgeon, Plymouth-Dock. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cadell and Davies. 1800.

Mr. Dunning is a strenuous advocate for the inoculation of the cow-pox, and apparently on sufficient grounds. He is disposed also to believe that the vaccine inoculation corrects the tendency to scrophula: but this opinion will hardly be established on the narrow basis of an individual's observations. He confides, however, so far in this notion, as to propose repeated inoculation for the cow-pox as a prevention of *phthisis pulmonalis*: but this will be considered, by most of our readers, as an abrupt induction.—Much other desultory matter is introduced, which might have been suppressed with great advantage to the author and to the reader.

Fer.

Art. 25. *A Second Essay on Burns*, in which an Attempt is made to refute the Opinions of Mr. Earle, and Sir W. Farquhar, lately advanced on the supposed Benefit of the Application of Ice in such Accidents: With Cases and Communications, confirming the Principles and Practice brought forward in a former Essay. Also Proofs, particularly addressed to Surgeons of the Army and Navy, of the Utility of the Stimulating Plan in the Treatment of Injuries caused by the Explosion of Gunpowder. By Edward Kentish, Author of the former Essay. 8vo. 3s. sewed. Mawman. 1800.

This lively and sensible pamphlet is intended to confirm, and give more general circulation to the practice of applying stimulants to burnt and scalded parts; and of supporting the patient, under such accidents, by the internal use of tonics: which system Mr. Kentish had recommended in a former publication.

In reviewing Mr. Earle's (now Sir James Earle) pamphlet *, which is here warmly and ably attacked, we thought it necessary to signify our dissent from his plan of treatment; and we had, indeed, supposed that cooling applications were entirely disused by intelligent practitioners, till we saw that work. In the following instances, Mr. Kentish has strongly marked the contrast between these different methods:

'About two years ago (says Mr. K.) I had an opportunity of pointing out to the pupils of a public institution, the superiority of this practice in a very striking manner. A child was brought for relief, who had been burnt by its cloaths taking fire. The neck, breast, face, hands, and arms were very much injured. It was ordered to have the Ol. Lini c. Aq. Calcis applied to it, and afterwards to be covered with plasters spread with ceratum flavum; and when the paroxysms of pain recurred, to be again bathed with the liniment, as was formerly the practice. It was allowed a small anodyne at night, but otherwise the practice was anti-phlogistic. The pain continued at intervals for several days; the parts did not suppurate; but on the third and fourth day tumified, as did the contiguous cellular membrane. A fever, with thirst, great restlessness, and on the seventh and eighth day a considerable coma, occurred; and on the ninth day the scene closed with the death of the patient. Nearly at the same time a similar accident was received, which was treated according to the principles of my essay, both by external and internal stimulants. The stages of the complaint were so strongly and favourably marked, and the child recovered so quickly and perfectly without any scar, that the gentlemen who saw these two cases, assured me they were well convinced of its superiority, and I have no doubt it will always influence their future practice.'

It is a happy circumstance for mankind, that the faculty are no longer afraid of overstepping the antient limits of their art, in order to cure their patients; and it appears that no prejudices can now defeat a proposal for improving the treatment of any disease, which comes properly warranted before the public:—but it must necessarily happen that, when changes of this nature are projected by

* See M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxxii. p. 308.

practitioners

practitioners who reside in the country, they cannot be received with equal readiness with those which originate from men who have become eminent in the metropolis. We feel it difficult to account, on any other principle than this, for the slow diffusion of Mr. Kentish's method, which we know to have been productive of the happiest effects.

We extract a short account of the treatment of a patient who had been dreadfully burnt by the accension of inflammable air:

'A draught, with sixty drops of laudanum and two drachms of æther, was given to him about eleven o'clock; and he was profusely bathed with heated spirit of turpentine for some time, over which were applied plasters thickly spread with digestive, rendered to the consistence of a thick liniment with the same spirit. He had a volatile cardiac julep to take a dose of every three hours; the anodyne was repeated at night with forty drops; and on the following morning, an hour before the time of dressing him, which was to be at nine o'clock, in case of thirst he was to have a glass of port wine, or wine and water, half and half.'

The cicatrization of the sores seemed to be afterward promoted by the application of finely powdered chalk to their surface.

We recommend the perusal of this tract, in the strongest manner, to our medical readers. Indeed, the efficacy of spirit of turpentine, applied to recent burns and scalds, should be made known to every family; considering the frequency of such accidents, and the importance of averting their bad consequences. **Fer.**

Art. 26. *The Plague not Contagious; or a Dissertation on the Source of Epidemic and Pestilential Diseases;* in which is attempted to prove, by a numerous Induction of Facts, that they never arise from Contagion, but are always produced by certain States, or certain Vicissitudes of the Atmosphere, &c. The Second Edition, with Additions. By Charles Maclean, M.D. &c. 8vo. 2s. Murray and Highley. 1800.

In the course of our labours, we have been sometimes called to repress confidence, and to detect sophistry: but never have we met with a work which was intitled to severer animadversion than this before us.—That an author should abuse his critics is sufficiently common; and we endure the ill-temper of disappointed writers with that firmness which is requisite to the discharge of our duty:—or that the exploded jests respecting Grub-street should be revived, by a writer who evinces his ignorance alike on this and every other point, would not have added a wrinkle to the brow of criticism:—but that an obscure individual should presume to advance the most hazardous paradoxes, on a subject of the deepest importance to the health of mankind, and that he should expect the wisdom and experience of the highest medical authorities to vanish before his own assertions, is a strain of arrogance which we were not prepared to expect, even from one of the authors of the "Science of Life."—So little did we know of Dr. Maclean, when we reviewed that work*, that we conceived his system and practice to have been published ironically;

* See M. Rev. N. S. for April, 1799, p. 459.

cally; and however we may aggravate our offences by the avowal, we must acknowlege that we know no more of Dr. Maclean now, than that he appears to be in earnest. We deduct, in course, so much more from our opinion of his wit and his judgment. The former pamphlet might have passed for a tolerable *hoax*, but we do not see what can save the present from total condemnation.

To shew the Doctor's logical and pathological skill, we shall only insert one specimen:

'Some attempts, I understand, have lately been made, to ascertain whether the plague can be communicated by inoculation. How far these attempts may have succeeded, as I have not had an opportunity of perusing the tracts published upon the subject, I do not at present know. But, at all events, it appears to me that the practical consequences, to be deduced from these experiments, cannot be of much importance. For, if it even were true that fever and all the other symptoms of general debility, which characterise plague, could be produced by inoculation, and if this disease, as is at present almost universally believed, can be communicated to the same person, repeatedly during the progress of life; that practice would scarce ever be resorted to by persons in health, who had any chance of escaping the disease. All the inference, therefore, that could be deduced from such a fact, supposing it to be true, is that the plague is, to a certain degree, contagious.—But, as so many apparently irrefutable arguments prove the contrary, it seems much more probable that a local affection only can be produced, by inoculating with the matter peculiar to the plague; in the same manner that pustules arise, from applying the matter of small-pox to the skin of persons, who have already had the disease, without, however, producing the slightest degree of general affection.'

If Dr. Maclean be really ignorant of the fact that the plague may be inoculated, so as to reproduce the characteristic symptoms of the disease, we would advise him to read the authors who have established it; and to retract, without delay, his very idle objections to the doctrine of contagion. Should he, however, prove contumacious, and refuse to become acquainted with this and other material truths,—such as the effect of separating the infected from the sound, detailed by Dr. de Mertens*,—we must advise our medical readers to act, in their treatment of contagious fevers, as if Dr. Maclean had never written.

POETRY, *&c.*

Fer.

Art. 27. *Original Poems*, by Thomas Sanderson. 12mo. 3s. 6d. sewed. Printed at Carlisle, and sold in London by Clark, &c. 1800.

The productions of this *Cumbrian* bard are offered to the public with great modesty. They were written, we are told, in a deep retirement; and the author throws himself, with Arcadian simplicity, on the mercy of his readers. Full gladly, therefore, would we have placed the bays on Mr. Sanderson's head, if the laws of our court would permit such a decision: but we cannot award to diffidence,

* See M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxix. p. 78.

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the wreath which is due to genius alone; and although Mr. S.'s poems have given us an impression of his worth and good sense, they have not excited our admiration of his talents for composition. One commendation, however, we can bestow on his lines; they are free from the affected turn which we have had so much reason to censure in other late publications. If we can here discover no passages which rise above mediocrity, we at least receive no shocks from mock sublimity, or false simplicity.

We present our readers with the following specimen of this author's powers:

'*THE PROSPECT.*

'These lines were written at SEBERGHAM, in the month of May, on an eminence that commanded a fine view of a rich and cultivated country, of hill and dale, wood and water; and are supposed to come from a Friend, who was at that time preparing to leave Cumberland, in order to pursue the mercantile line of life in one of our West-India Islands.

'See this gay landscape, that extends so wide —
The plains of CUMBRIA cloth'd in vernal pride:
Where dreary wilds and barren prospects frown'd,
See CULTIVATION spreads her treasures round;
Athirst for blood, where prowl'd the savage train,
The peaceful lambkins gambol o'er the plain;
Where NATURE's charms and vernal blooms were few,
ART spreads her rival beauties to the view;
Here GRANDEUR revels in the spacious dome;
And there the Peasant's carol cheers his home;
Here, crown'd with garlands, strays the Village Maid,
And there the wearied Woodman wreathes his shade.

'Blest natives they! who, at the peep of dawn,
Scale the proud hill, or musing, range the lawn;
Blest natives they! who FLORA's scenes behold—
The lily blossom and the rose unfold:
But scenes like these no more shall shed delight,
No more, with native beauties, lure my sight!
In distant lands, beyond the Western Main,
I haste, to mingle with TRADE's busy train;
Where vertic suns, that torrid fervour pour,
Check the grove's music and the vernal flow'r.
Yet long shall M[illegible]M'RY's eye, with rapture, roam
'Mid the bright joys that bless'd my native home;
Long shall yon bow'r, that courts the zephyr's gale—
Yon stream, that winds down Seb'ram's verdant vale—
Long shall yon bank—yon grove of ancient trees—
Return to view, and still return to please.

'Adieu BRITANNIA! o'er thy favour'd isle,
May Trade and Commerce, nurs'd by FREEDOM, smile!
Adieu ye FAIR! Creation's brightest part,
Who long in chains have held my captive heart;

And.

And thou, AMANDA, to my bosom dear,
Take, at this parting hour, a Lover's tear!
'Tis the best tribute I can pay to thee—
What more can come from SORROW, and from me?'

Of the lighter pieces, we shall select only the following epigram, in which the author has been more successful than usual:

'EPIGRAM III.

'DICK on his wife could not bestow
One tear of Sorrow when she died;
Her *life* had made so many flow,
That all the briny fount was dried.'

We are glad, for the author's sake, to observe that this miscellany has been encouraged by numerous subscribers. Fer.

Art. 28. *The Summer's Eve;* a Poem. By John Bidlake, A. B. Chaplain to his R. H. the Duke of Clarence, &c. 8vo. 4s. Boards. Murray and Co. 1800.

It is perhaps not to be expected that a poem should display much originality, in the composition of which the imagination of the author must necessarily occupy a field whence so many former poets have culled the flowers. In the present work, we meet in every page with descriptions, images, and sentiments, that recall to our recollection the works of Thomson, Gray, and Goldsmith: but, independently of this want of originality, the poem possesses considerable merit. The verse in general is harmonious, and the rhymes are correct. The imagery is pleasing and classical, and it is agreeably deversified by moral and religious reflection.—We give the following quotation as an example of the author's style:

'In poets' fancy-dreams the rural bow'r
Is void of care, and blest each rural hour;
They boast there plenty ever dwells, and there
Each Strephon constant, and each Phillis fair;
And if perchance with love, their happy lot
Should fix them in some small sequester'd cot,
Be sure they feed on joys that ne'er decline,
They drink love's nectar, and on raptures dine.
But ah! where'er poor man shall hide his head,
Fast on his steps will certain Misery tread;
With giant pace his weary paths invade,
O'er opening bliss diffusing nights of shade.
'See yonder hovel! mark the tottering roof!
Against no angry pelting tempest proof:
See through the broken pane, with visit rude,
Each wind familiarly dares intrude!
While hourly trembling in the crumbling wall,
Suspensive danger threats its instant fall.
Within, the squalid family complain
Of lingering want and ever-during pain:
There to their rugged beds the hungry creep,
And try to lose their griefs in friendly sleep:

There, sad companions! dwell lean wasting Care,
Chill Penury, and hopeless, fix'd Despair.
Yet there some solitary joys are found,
With friendly balm to heal the gnawing wound.
There Love, not frighted from the sooty cell,
With wretchedness is still content to dwell;
Life's Charity, that smooths the wrinkled brow,
And gilds the gloom of all our pains below.
E'en Friendship there will not disdain to rest,
Nor Sleep, who loves to doze on Labour's breast.
See o'er her sleeping babe the mother bends,
The cradle rocks, and all its slumbers tends.
Ah! see how anxious love and tender fear
Fast from her lids distil the trembling tear;
Affection's tears, more worth than gems can own
That beauty deck, or glitter in a crown.
Thou cradled babe! how does my bosom beat,
To think what ills thy future paths await:
Pride on thy humble birth shall sternly frown,
And dark Oppression claim thee for his own,
And thou adversity e'er doom'd to taste,
A spring-bud struggling in the wildest waste.' O.W.

Art. 29. *Virginia*, or the Fall of the Decemvirs; a Tragedy. By John Bidlake, B. A. Chaplain to his Royal Highness the Duke of Clarence, &c. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Murray and Highley. 1800.

If this tragedy cannot be said to possess any quality which elevates it above the rank of mediocrity, it labours under few defects which can subject it to the lash of criticism. The events of the story are too few and too simple to be capable of being wrought up into an *interesting* Drama; and the action of the plot scarcely commences till the beginning of the fourth act. The 1st, 2d, and 3d acts consist principally of uninteresting dialogue, between parties who seem brought forwards solely for the purpose of declaiming, in language sufficiently elegant and poetical, but whose appearance and conversation contribute little to the progress of the plot. Do

Art. 30. *The Conspiracy of Gowrie*, a Tragedy. 8vo. 2s. Bell. 1800.

The author of this play informs us that he has published it to ascertain 'whether his mind is of that kind, which is likely to excel in literary pursuits.' His appeal to public opinion is candid: but perhaps it would have been more judicious, if he had introduced himself by attempting something less than the high and difficult species of composition which he has here undertaken.

This piece might have been more properly characterized as a dramatic poem, than as a tragedy; and indeed, the bard himself has recognized its unfitness for representation, in his preface. The deviations from historical facts, in which he has indulged, are not compensated by any additional interest in the plot; and the character of Maclenna, which seems to be copied from the *invisibles* of the German monster-mongers, produces nothing but perplexity in

the reader. We shall extract part of her history, (the whole would be too long,) as a favourable specimen of the author's style:

'Fair smil'd my fortunes once. My father died,
And early left me to a husband's care;
A husband, dear to me as light, as life,
Whom science honour'd and whom wisdom lov'd.
Serene and unmolested in the vale
Mov'd on the noiseless tenour of his days,
Virtue his practice, knowledge his delight.
He number'd o'er the nightly host of stars,
Pursu'd the wand'rings of the cloudless moon,
And read the face of Heav'n: the pregnant earth
For him pour'd forth her treasures of the mine.
For him the green sea gave her shelly store;
Each tree that crown'd the mountain, and each flow'r
That strew'd the dale, with ev'ry potent herb,
He knew and nam'd the name. His fame flew high,
Till Envy shed her sickly dews around,
Damp'd his bold wing, and press'd him low, low, low.
Calumny then, though us'd to lurk in shades,
Rear'd in the sun's broad blaze her terrible crest,
And with accusing tongue heap'd charge on charge
To swell the forg'd account, that, leagu'd with fiends
Invisible, of fire, earth, air and sea,
With circles strange and rites of magic art,
He practis'd to destroy the world's repose.
Credulity, than whom no uglier plague
Taints the stain'd mind, assum'd the judge's robe,
Usurp'd the seat of justice, utter'd lies,
Which she (down heart) term'd oracles of law,
And doom'd him to the death. Superior pow'rs,
Angels of bliss and dæmons of despair,
In your eternal volumes write his truth!
Though oft invok'd, ye never come to me.
It cannot be, that it is yours to pierce
The mystic veil that hides the world unknown,
And stand reveal'd to mortals, if ye are:
Else Hell at least, though Heav'n denied my prayer,
Had sent me aid, had lent her minist'ring fires,
Fires, which e'en now I'd purchase with my blood!'

The language of this tragedy is redundant, prolix, and sprinkled with Scotticisms: which defects might have been corrected by delaying the publication till the file had been more carefully exercised. The author is not devoid of poetical genius, but he seems to be averse from the labour which finished compositions demand, and to be too easily satisfied with his first ideas. When he has acquired,

"That last, and hardest art, the art to blot,"

he may produce something that will prove more acceptable to the public, and more creditable to himself.

Fer.

Art.

Art. 31. *The Point of Honor:* a Play, in Three Acts. Taken from the French, and performed with universal Applause at the Theatre-Royal, Hay-Market. By Charles Kemble. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Rees.

This short piece excites considerable interest even in the closet, though it is calculated chiefly for stage-effect. Our suspence for the fate of Durimel, who is condemned to death as a deserter, is artfully supported to the last; and the characters, also, are well contrasted. Of the dialogue we have little to observe: it merits neither much praise nor severe censure. If an audience at a theatre must be animated by huzzas, and thrilled with horror by the roll of the drum; this piece exhibits some dexterity in the management of those modern improvements on tragedy.

Fer.

Art. 32 *Life.* A Comedy, in Five Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Frederick Reynolds. 8vo. 2s. Longman and Rees. 1801.

If we were inclined to be severe on the excentric author of this *lively* trifle, we might complain that he leads the Reviewers a *sad life*; for our old heads have ached, as the fantastic figures of this comedy danced before us. We might say, with Æsop's frogs, that this may be sport to Mr. R. but it is death to us. There is not so much difference between Champagne and Perry, as between sterling comic wit, and the bouncing, frothy sallies of this writer; and the words of Hamlet respecting human life may be applied without alteration to this play:

"Fie on't! fie on't! 'tis an unweeded garden,
That grows to seed—things rank and gross in nature
Possess it merely."——

The stage has too long been occupied by these farces in five acts; and it is time that good taste should assert her right to be decently and respectably amused. A single caricature may entertain for a moment, but an unconnected groupe of grotesque figures cannot supply the place of a good painting. In a word, unless Mr. Reynolds amends his *life* in his next dramatic effort, we fear that, however he may escape from the audience, sentence of condemnation must be pronounced in our court.

In p. 41. we observe a new word, which must undergo the mark of reprobation—*impostress*—There is no good authority for this feminine termination.

"*Respicere exemplar Vitæ morumque jubebo*
Doctum Imitatorem, et veras hinc ducere voces."

Do

Art. 33. *Wilmore Castle*, a Comic Opera, in Two Acts, as performed with considerable Applause at the Theatre-Royal, Drury-Lane. The Music entirely New, by Mr. Hook. Written by R. Houlton, M. B. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Westly.

We learn from the preface that this piece did not entirely succeed on the stage; which the author, as usual, imputes to party—"*Ah! Mr. L'Auteur tombé* !*" No candid reader, however, will dissent

* *Le Barbier de Seville.*

from the judgment of the audience; on the contrary, it were to be wished that similar severity had been exercised on other modern dramas which are endured on our theatres, tho' not superior to the production before us.

We give the following specimen of the virtue for which the author supposes he was driven out of the Thespian Court; a satire on Men-milliners:

'*Enter* Miss HARLEY, *and* SMART, *dressed as a Postillion, his boots dirty.*

'*Miss H.* (*Laughing as she enters*) Excuse me, *Smart*, but I really cannot help laughing at thy present figure.

'*Smart.* (*Laughing heartily, and surveying himself*) Nor can I, Madam, refrain from laughing at myself,—to behold the spruce, dapper Mr. Smart, ladies' *man-milliner*, in London, metamorphosed into a dirty postillion!—Gad, it was lucky that I learned to *drive*, before I had the honor of a place behind the counter of a *cap* and *bonnet* merchant.

'*Charles.* 'Tis from an experience of thy better talents, that we have taken thee on this expedition; and be assured, my good fellow, if we succeed in our enterprize of getting into WILMORE CASTLE, that we will reward thee nobly.

'*Smart.* Succeed!—May I never twirl another ribbon but we will succeed!—But were the charming *shopping ladies* to see me in this trim and pickle, never more would they suffer me to hand them a cap, or adjust a bonnet.

'*Miss H.* I dare say, Smart, you are very fond of attending your fair customers.

'*Smart.* Charming to be sure, Ma'am, to wait upon the ladies!—And then with our heads neatly colliflowered—a smirking countenance, and "*nimeny pimeny*" lisp, thus to address the divine creatures:—"Pray, ladies, do me the honor to notice the graceful air of this *Cap*—beauty of form—wave of feather, and enchanting elegance of the whole!—The price exceedingly low, considering the richness of the materials, and immense beauty of the fashion—only three guineas!—Do, young lady, just try it on before the glass;—how striking!—how attracting!—'pon honor, Ma'am, it becomes you most divinely!"

'*Miss H.* Ha! ha! ha!—I vow one of my own sex could not have given a better description!

'*Charles.* And yet, I am inclined to think, Smart, that you are not much pleased with this effeminate employ.

'*Smart.* True, Captain *Harley;* for though, by a topsy-turvy sort of custom, *Men* are become great proficients in the *art millinery*, damme, but I had rather drive your Honor through the dirtiest roads in all England, than longer continue in an employ, that usurps the station of industrious females!

'*Miss H.* Mind, Smart, our feigned name is *Bloomer*.

'*Smart.* I'll be as wary as a hawk, provided there is no danger of being shot on the expedition.

'*Charles.* Surely, my good friend, you would face some danger for us.

'*Smart.*

'*Smart.* Sir, I think it honest thus early to announce, that with respect to *fire-arms* and *cold-steel*, my nerves are not the stoutest—every man has his *antipathies*.

'*Miss H.* Pri'thee tell us—what occasioned thine?

'*Smart.* Madam, you must know that I went myself lately on a love expedition; when on attempting to carry off my charmer, I was not only saluted with a blunderbuss, but had very near a small sword thro' my body!—Do you wonder now, Ma'am, at my antipathy to fire arms and cold steel!

'*Charles.* Ha! ha! ha!—Well, well, I'll insure thee from all harm.

'*Smart.* (*Spouting*) Then, Richard Smart, "thou art thyself again!"

'*Miss H.* Yonder, brother, is certainly WILMORE CASTLE, from the description we received.—Step on, Smart, and reconnoitre the Castle a little more closely for us.

'*Smart.* (*Alarmed*) Reconnoitre the Castle!—I begin to smell gunpowder! (*aside*) Zounds, I wish this love expedition was over, and that I was safe back again in town.—I greatly fear I shall meet some of my *antipathies!*' [*Exit.*

Though we do not think that the author should complain of the sentence pronounced by the audience, yet, if he should accuse the public of shewing too great indulgence to some of his brother-bards, whose merits are not superior to his own, his argument might be very well sustained.

Fer.

Art. 34. *The Step-Mother*, a Tragedy. By the Earl of Carlisle, K. G. &c 8vo. 2s. Evans. 1809.

It is the purpose of this noble author, to turn the views of the public to our own resources for dramatic composition, and to emancipate the stage from the predominance of German models. In this salutary and patriotic scheme, he has the concurrence of our wishes for his complete success: but the warmth of public caprice seems now to have exhausted itself; the audience begins to look with disgust on the scenes of the Teutonic Melpomene; and it will soon discover, like Shakspeare's Fairy-Queen, that *it had been enamoured of an Ass's head.*

In the tragedy before us, Lord Carlisle has introduced our old acquaintances, the three Fatal Sisters, instead of the modern train of apparitions; and he has mingled scenes of a lighter and more comic cast, with those of terror and desolation. The machinery might have been properly omitted, because it adds nothing to the interest of the piece; and, as the scene is laid in Poland, we have some doubt whether the supernatural personages be appropriately assigned. The Plot, in which an ambitious and unprincipled woman, by a series of machinations, causes her husband and son to fall by each other's hands, is sufficiently dreadful, without the intervention of visionary agents; and the habitual vices of the culpable characters render such interference unnecessary.—The characters are, in general, well supported, and the language is correct: but the principal deficiency, of which we must complain, is the want of tragic fire: instead of

the thunder and lightning of poetry, we meet with the glare of an Argand's lamp. Thomson speaks of "*the mild majesty of private life*;" and such we conceive to be Lord Carlisle's station among writers of tragedy.

We insert a specimen of the dialogue:

SCENE II.

'*Enter Casimir, Frederic, Adolphus, Peres, Countess Casimir, Louisa, Isabella, Attendants.*

'*Casimir.* You've made good haste. I was afraid the letter,
That must have reach'd you, as you pass'd thro' Warsaw,
Might, for some days, have given you employment
With our first Minister.

'*Frederic.* He was then absent,
And his arrival for this month postpon'd.
I deem'd it not your pleasure, I had waited.

'*Casimir (aside)* O that you had! thus I had gain'd some days
Of value beyond measure.

'*Louisa.* But this wound!
You hardly mention'd it! then the fatigue,
The weather, and the roads; alas! you should
Have travell'd slower.

'*Peres.* Soft.—As for the wound,
I best can speak to that: I can describe
Most accurately the nature of the hurt.
But first, young lady, you must learn the course
That a ball took in Marshal Mouskin's hip;
Almost a homogeneous case, except
With the nice difference of the injury
To the os pubis, and the great trochanter—

'*Frederick.* O this abuses all indulgence! Peace,
As you respect clean straw and hellebore.
The man is surely craz'd! Is this a season—

'*Casimir.* If you would hear of wounds, of perilous chances,
Of valour and of strength, of men whose sinews
Were twisted, like a cable, by the hand
Of Nature, and form'd by her to bend not
Under such iron coats as now would crush
To atoms all the modern pigmy race,
You must look back to seasons, when our Poles
Had men to struggle with!
Sons of our northern Serpent, Swedes and Russians,
Another race! How different from your Turk,
Reeling and nerveless from his haram-conflicts,
Ill-stomaching the change of the down sopha
And scented bath, for the straw-litter'd tent!
And still you call yours—War!

'*Adolphus.* You much mistake,
My Lord, granting, that, since your famous times,
The humau race has undergone a sweating,
As has our coin, and now has little value;
Yet, had you witness'd—

'*Frederick.*

'*Frederick.* O no more of this!
Indulge his humour.
'*Adolphus.* 'Tis a cursed one:—
But, for thy sake—
'*Countess.* We're wont to hear, all things,
In his conceit, are verging to decay.
The very ice is not with equal thickness
Ribb'd, as in his good days: the sun itself
Now yields, in potency of heat and splendour,
To the poor peasant's stove. Excuse this fancy;
I know he means you no ungracious welcome.
'*Adolphus.* *(aside)* As hearty as your own, or I'm mistaken.
Casimir. Come, let us leave this place. Our northern air
Must needs affront the untun'd, out-stretch'd nerves
By Asia's steaming winds. Prithee, let's in.
I know your modern traveller wants recruits
That nature formerly could well dispense with.
[*Exeunt, excepting Adolphus and Isabella.*'

We shall not attempt to determine, precisely, how near this scene approaches to our great dramatic poets: but it is certainly better than some of the translations from the German with which we have lately been pestered. **Fer.**

Art. 35. *The Fate of Bertha*; a Poem. By William Lucas. 4to. 2s. 6d. Westley. 1800.

This little poem, consisting of twenty-nine pages, creates not fewer than two suicides, a murder, and a rape. If to these we add the tortured rhymes, the mutilated verses, and the scattered limbs of poets purloined and mangled by the author, which occur in every page, it will surely be thought that we pass a very lenient sentence on it, by condemning it to perpetual imprisonment. **O.W.**

LAW.

Art. 36. *Report of the Cause between Charles Sturt, Esq. Plaintiff, and the most Noble the Marquis of Blandford, Defendant,* for Criminal Conversation with the Right Honourable Lady Mary Ann Sturt, tried in the Court of King's Bench, Westminster, 27th May 1801, before Lord Kenyon and a Special Jury. With an Appendix containing the Letters of the Parties which did not appear on the Trial; a Preface; and Notes. 2d. Edit. 8vo. 5s. Ridgway.

This publication comes from the Plaintiff in the cause to which it relates; and the additions made to it are designed to repel the aspersions cast on his character by the Attorney General, who was counsel for the Defendant. It is not our province to discuss an affair of this delicate nature, nor to give any opinion of it: but we may observe that it seems no more than just that those who have heard of the Attorney General's attack on Mr. Sturt should consider this defence, and that the pamphlet is likely to gratify curiosity *of a certain kind:* but we cannot say that it affords a pleasing view of either fashionable morals or fashionable attainments. **G.2.**

Art. 37. *Remarks on the Poor Laws, and the Maintenance of the Poor.* By William Bleamire, Esq. Barrister at Law, and one of the Police Magistrates. 8vo. pp. 36. 1s. 6d. Butterworth. 1800.

The reader is here presented with a short but neat account of the system of the poor-laws, and the different acts of parliament by which that system has been established.—The present writer agrees with Mr. Ruggles, (whose works on this subject we have formerly noticed with commendation,) that it would be advantageous to abolish settlements, which operate as an encroachment on natural liberty, and are attended with more expence than benefit to the community. He also recommends that the office of overseer should be annihilated; and that a person of experience, integrity, and ability, should be annually appointed in his stead to take care of and manage the poor, to whom the title of inspector of the poor might be given. Mr. Saunders (an account of whose publication may be found in our 29th vol. N. S. p. 458.) is of opinion that many of the evils belonging to the present system are referable to the nature of the overseer's office; and he advises a separation of the duties of collector and overseer, depositing the funds in the hands of a treasurer. The two plans do not materially vary; and they are both the result of much attention to an important subject, from persons whose situation furnished them with the best opportunities of arriving at just conclusions. S.R.

Art. 38. *A Translation of the Chapters* CCLXXIII. *and* CCLXXXVII. *of the Consolato del Mari relating to Prize Law.* 8vo. pp. 27. 1s. Butterworth. 1800.

This translation is executed by Dr. Robinson, (whose Admiralty Reports we have mentioned with approbation,) from the old Italian Version, chiefly used by *Casa-Regis*, and reprinted with his explications at Venice in the year 1737. The *Consolato* is a body of practical regulations, adapted to the variety of interests and relations resulting from maritime pursuits. Both of the merit and of the antiquity of the collection, different writers have entertained different sentiments; *Bynkershoek* and *Hubner* representing it as a *Farrago, un amas, ou un réeueil assez mal-choisi;* while *Casa-Regis*, *Valin*, and *Emerigon*, esteem it as a *valuable* but *hidden* treasure; which the latter writer once intended to have rendered more accessible to public use, by a new translation, accompanied with notes.—This work is asserted in the Italian editions to have been received at *Rome* in the year 1075, and at various other places in the 11th, 12th, and 13th centuries: according to Giannoni, however, it is supposed not to have appeared till the time of Louis IX. of France: but it is generally allowed to have been composed from the Amalphitan Table, which existed as a body of maritime laws of great and extensive authority in the Mediterranean, from the close of the eleventh century. The propriety of its republication at this period cannot be questioned, when the subject of prize law is undergoing such frequent and able discussions in the Court of Admiralty here, and in the foreign Universities. S.R.

Art.

Art. 39. *Collectanea Maritima*, being a Collection of Public Instruments, &c. &c. tending to illustrate the History and Practice of Prize Law. By Charles Robinson, LL. D. Advocate in Doctors' Commons. 8vo. pp. 90. 2s. 6d. Butterworth. 1801.

The right of visitation and search of neutral vessels, in time of war, is a subject of general importance, and has of late received great consideration.—Some persons do not hesitate to represent this species of law as more arbitrary in its foundation, and more questionable in its obligations, than other laws; as incompatible with the true principles of justice; and as subversive of the rightful exercise of neutral commerce. Others maintain, and among the number is the present writer, that the temperate use of the right of search and personal inspection is at all times the best, if not the only, security for belligerent powers against the consequences of imposition and fraud.

'It is the particular object, (Dr. Robinson observes,) of the following pages to shew, that in addition to the expediency and political fitness of this pretension, we have on our side the sanction of immemorial *usage and custom of the sea*, proved as regularly and as fully as any other legal custom whatever. It was therefore for the purpose of interposing something like an appeal to the experience of former times, that a translation of the prize chapters of the Consolato del Mari was lately offered to the public; in prosecution of the same design, and as a sequel to that little work, the following collection of public acts is now brought forward, in such a manner as seemed best adapted to convey the most information by the shortest means. The period of the 16th and 17th centuries was chosen for the commencement of this collection, on account of its important relation to every branch of civil polity prevalent amongst us at this day; and more particularly because the subjects of prize law appear to have been much agitated during that period. The printed collection of French ordinances, with the exception of one or two edicts, commences from that time, and during the reigns of Henry VIII., Queen Elizabeth, James I. and Charles I. these subjects were frequently brought into discussion between them and their powerful opponents.'

In conformity with this design, Dr. R. has brought forwards many precedents, to shew that the main principles of prize law are built, as is often observed in the Consolato del Mari, *on the ancient customs and usage of the sea*. On this species of proof, we are presented with the following judicious remark by the present author:

'If, on this view of the evidence of past times, the *fact* of custom shall be *successfully* established, the conclusion of law will not be very distant. Till it is shewn on the other side, in what respect this custom so proved differs from other legal customs; or for what reasons it is not as natural and as just a source of legal obligation as other customs; it will be our duty to adhere to the authority which has been so long ascribed to it, in every language of Europe and at all times; and to forego none of the benefits of those rights, which have be- constantly claimed and practised under it;—affording hereb- ne proof of *necessary utility* from general prevalence, and some

some inference of a legal quality from *this utility*. *Lex est ratio summa, quæ jubet quæ sunt utilia et necessaria.*'

These public instruments are chiefly taken from Rymer's *Fœdera*; and the last in the volume, which is a French Ordinance of Charles VI. dated 7th December 1400, furnishes a convincing proof that the main principles of prize law were considered, four hundred years ago, nearly in the same light as at this day; and that the regulations applied to them were framed *then* with particular attention, and with specific reference to the *practice* and *usage* which had, as it was *then* expressed, *antiently* prevailed on these matters.

This collection, which we are glad to hear is to be continued, is calculated to assist the researches of the learned, and to amuse the curious in their speculations; it also reflects much light on a discussion in which the dearest interests of this country are materially concerned.

Additional remarks on this subject will be found in a preceding part of this number of our Review: see pages 307. to 313. S.R.

Art. 40. *The Laws relating to the Poor.* By Francis Const, Esq. of the Middle Temple, Barrister at Law. The Fourth Edition; in which the Statutes and Cases to Hilary Term 1800, including the Collections originally made upon this Subject by Edmund Bott, Esq. are arranged under their respective Heads; and the whole System of the Poor Laws, together with many Cases never before published, placed in a clear and perspicuous point of view. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Butterworth. 1800.

This publication will be very useful to all magistrates and gentlemen attending the sessions; and it deserves a more detailed account than we generally allot to catalogue articles, because the original work has never been noticed in our Review, and because the present editor has materially improved it by the insertion and judicious arrangement of new matter.—Mr. Bott, under whose direction the compilation was formed in the year 1771, obtained 'a great number of extracts from a MS. collection of cases by the late John Ford, Esq. and a variety of additional cases taken from the MS. of Mr. Serjeant (afterwards Mr. Justice) Foster. The first series of these insertions are distinguished by the letters "MSS." and the second by "MSS. 2," and have been left untouched by the present editor.'

The plan of the work, which is preserved in the present edition, is to introduce, first, the several statutes that have been passed on each subject, and then to add the cases chronologically which have been determined on their several branches. The mode of obtaining a settlement by *notice and residence* under the statutes 13 & 14 *Car.* 2. c. 12. the 1 *Jac.* 2. c. 17. and the 3 *Will. and Mary*, c. 11. having been abolished by the subsequent act (generally denominated Mr. *East*'s Act) 35 *Geo.* 3. c. 101. which repeals so much of the statute 13 & 14 *Car.* 2. as enables Justices to *remove persons that are likely to become chargeable*, and enacts that no person shall be removed till such person *shall have become chargeable*, Mr. Const has with great propriety omitted that chapter which treated of settlements by notice and residence, and has substituted another, in consequence of this alteration of law, intitled 'persons irremovable until chargeable.'

The

The same statute 35 *Geo.* 3. c. 101. has provided that no person shall gain a settlement by being rated or paying taxes in respect of tenements under the yearly value of ten pounds; and, as a settlement is gained by renting a tenement of ten pounds a year, any proof of paying taxes for the same becomes unnecessary; for which reason, the chapter relative to paying public taxes is also omitted.

The statutes which have been passed, and the cases which have been decided, since the publication of the last edition, are all introduced and properly arranged in the present; while those cases, which have been expressly determined *not to be law*, are removed from the text. A few *MSS.* cases about the beginning of the Reign of George II. will also be found in this work.

Such is the nature of this publication; which, from the vast quantity and the judicious arrangement of its matter, must be found extremely useful, if not indeed absolutely necessary, by a large proportion of the profession.—Though we think that the editor has in most instances been accurate in placing his cases under their different heads, we are inclined to believe that the case of *The King* against *The Inhabitants of Lowess*, E. 16 Geo. 3. Burr. S. C. 825, which is inserted under the chapter treating of a settlement by renting a tenement, should have been introduced in the chapter relative to a settlement by hiring and service; since it is the case of a servant, and not of a person occupying a tenement.—This, however, is a very trifling mistake in a work of so much general merit, and on which so much labour and judgment have been exercised. **S.R.**

Art. 41. *A System of English Conveyancing, adapted to Scotland.* A New Edition, considerably enlarged and improved. By James M'Nayr, LL. D. Writer in Glasgow. 4to. pp. 300. Glasgow. 1800.

The frequent execution in Scotland of deeds in the English form, in consequence of her commercial intercourse with this country and the colonies, (which are in a great measure governed by our laws,) and the ignorance of and inattention to the essential requisites of deeds, too observable in the Scotch conveyancers, rendered a publication of this description particularly desireable. The author, with the view of remedying this inconvenience, has in the volume before us presented to his countrymen a collection of such precedents as are in most general use, and has annexed to them such an analysis of their nature and form, as must conduce to render them more easily and better understood.—We are of opinion that the work will be found serviceable to those for whose purpose it was compiled, and therefore we recommend it to their attention. **S.R.**

NOVELS.

Art. 42. *The Mistake*, or something beyond a Joke. By P. Littlejohn. 12mo. 3 Vols. 12s. Boards. Hurst, &c. 1800.

The author of this tale modestly assures us that it contains nothing which may be literally termed new, and that the characters boast not of originality. We fear, however, that the diffidence of Mr. Littlejohn has rendered him blind to his own merits; because, in

in our opinion, there is much of what is new in the work, and much which he may safely call his own. For instance, what can be more novel and original than the following passages, in which he talks (page 4th, 1st vol.) 'of hours passed in a giddy round of fashionable intemperance, till the *tender incitations* of a husband *became lost in the conflict*'; (p. 23.)—'prognosticating that genuine affection *was* concerned;'—(P. 105.) 'Dimming the native lustre of *his eye* with a *cast of piteous eccentricity!*"—(p. 116.) of 'displaying a flag *in a kind of terrorum*'; (p. 121.) of 'the mortification of the disappointment adding force to the *erasible* particles';—and (p. 161.) 'of *other etceteras.*'

Novelty and originality, also, are not here confined to words and phrases, but are conspicuous in the situations of the *dramatis personæ*, and in the poetical excursions of the writer's fancy. Can we look for a more novel situation than that of a gentleman fainting away, and supported by a lady into whose arms he fell? (vide p 170. vol. 3d) 'he uttered a tremulous sigh, and but for the timely exertion of Mrs. Fairfax would have sunk on the floor, she supported him in her arms, and her maid, whom her cries brought to her assistance, administered a volatile essence, which soon again brought back pulsation.'—We have often heard of "disarming by a look," and have generally regarded it as a mere metaphorical expression: but we see it actually exemplified in this work: (Page 234, vol. 3.) 'Fairfax had been but stunned by the blow, and soon recovered sufficiently to see his situation—he started *to* his feet, and in order to impede their flight, produced a pistol;—he presented it, but in doing it his eye met the severe frown of Edmund. A pang of conscious guilt *enerved* his arm, and the instrument fell from his hand.'—We shall quote one more passage, as a specimen of this gentleman's poetical capacity: (p. 49. vol. i.) '*but truth, like the elementary bolt, commissioned by its electrical force to the quick destruction of some lofty spreading tree, strikes deep to the very centre of my hopes,—dries up the foliage of my fancy,—and leaves me a parched and withered ruins!!*'

In chusing the profession of an author, Mr. Littlejohn has certainly made a '*Mistake*,' and we apprehend that he may find the consequences of it to be '*beyond a joke.*' O.W.

Art. 43. *Elliott:* or, Vicissitudes of early Life. By Mrs. Burke. 12mo. 2 Vols. 8s. sewed. Cawthorn. 1800.

To those who can receive pleasure from the mere narration of successive events, without requiring any accordancy with nature and probability; and who can read the tale of thwarted love and suffering virtue, without regarding poverty of diction or faults of style; the history of *Elliott* may prove an interesting production. D°

Art. 44. *The Letters of a Solitary Wanderer;* containing Narratives of various Description. By Charlotte Smith. 12mo. 3 Vols. 13s. 6d. sewed. Low. 1800.

Each of these volumes contains a narrative supposed to be collected by the Solitary Wanderer in the counties which he visits. The tales are entertaining and interesting; and the composition does no discredit to the established reputation of Mrs. C. Smith. D°

Art.

Art. 45. *Midsummer Eve;* or the Country Wake: a Tale of the Sixteenth Century. 12mo. 2 Vols. 6s. sewed. Mawman. 1800.

We are told that this tale has been very popular for more than two hundred years in the northern districts of England; and that it has been delivered to posterity by oral tradition, and believed with such implicit faith by numbers, that they never questioned one single article in the story. We can see no reason why it should not still have been left to oral tradition; except that the editor, being one of those who never doubted the truth of the tale, was fearful lest the progress of reason and knowlege should weaken the power of oral tradition, and therefore wished to preserve it from future oblivion by giving it existence in a written record. He has certainly *gone great lengths*, in order to persuade his readers into a belief of the supernatural appearances related in the story, by putting it on the same footing with a belief in the sacred truth of revealed religion; and by applying the same arguments against infidelity with respect to the former, which are used against scepticism concerning the latter. Whether he has thus benefited the cause of religion, we leave wiser heads than our own to determine: but we will suppose that the editor imagined he should contribute to its promotion, because, if he could add to the numbers of those who never disputed the truth of the story, he would thus be disposing so many to receive without hesitation the less marvellous narrations of sacred writ. *O.W.*

Art. 46. *The Castle of Eridan;* or the entertaining and surprising History of the valiant Don Alvares, and the beautiful Eugenia, Duchess of Savoy. By G. A. Graglia. 12mo. 4s. 6d. sewed. Hurst, &c. 1800.

Improbable in its events, unnatural in its characters, mean in its sentiments, and trifling in its descriptions, this tragical tale is *sad* in nothing but its composition, and excites no sorrow but for its author. *O.W.*

POLITICAL.

Art. 47. *Remarks on a late Publication styled "The History of the Politics of Great Britain and France,"* &c. &c. By William Belsham. 8vo. 3s. 6d. stitched. Robinsons. 1800.

Art. 48. *The History of the Politics of Great Britain and France vindicated from a late Attack by Mr. William Belsham.* By Herbert Marsh, B. D. F. R. S. 8vo. 3s. stitched. Stockdale. 1801.

Art. 49. *Reply to the Rev. Herbert Marsh's Vindication of a late Work,* &c. By William Belsham. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Robinsons. 1801.

"When Greek meets Greek, then comes the tug of war."—These two adverse political champions are confessedly men of high abilities, which have been sufficiently manifested by their former publications, on subjects both historical and political. The remarker considers the *History*, &c. by Mr. Marsh * as partial to the mea-

* For our account of this work, see M. Rev. N. S. vol. xxxi. Feb. and March, 1800.

sures of the British Government with respect to the present 'Bloody and Destructive War;' and to evince this partiality, he enters into a strict examination of the conduct of our Ministry, with regard to those topics which are subjects of Mr. M.'s panegyrical display, from the treaty of Pilnitz in 1791, to Lord Grenville's abrupt refusal of M. Chauvelin's overtures for an alliance between Great Britain and France, in the year 1793. The whole of this severe investigation is designed to prove, in opposition to the ingenious *Historian of the Politics*, &c. that with regard to the war *we* were the *aggressors*.—Mr. B. concludes with the following pointed prophecy regarding our late premier, whose retirement from the helm of administration the prophet could not foresee at the time when he wrote:

'The name of Mr. Pitt will be immortalized in history, as the man who has added more to the burden, and subtracted more from the liberties of the subject, than all the statesmen who have preceded him in office since the Revolution. No Minister ever challenged the confidence of the country with such haughtiness; and no Minister ever so completely forfeited all rational pretension to that confidence so prematurely and proudly claimed.'

For the defence of his *History*, as well as of the conduct of our Government, Mr. Marsh has published this *Vindication*, &c.; and whether or not he has been successful in his general design of refuting Mr. B.'s objections, and overturning his representations, he certainly has well supported his own reputation as an able writer and advocate.—We refrain from entering, on this occasion, into particular points of controversy; chusing rather to refer to these interesting tracts at large; which are well worth the perusal of readers of either party, who wish for farther satisfaction concerning them.

In Mr. B.'s *Reply* to Mr. M. the animated author sets out with the following preliminary observations:—'It unfortunately happens, that controversy, or, in other words, fair and impartial discussion, which is a very good thing, is extremely apt to degenerate into contention, or personal alercation, which is a very bad one. Taking it for granted, in the Remarks published by me not many months since, on the History of Mr. Herbert Marsh, which appeared in my view, as in that of many others, a very fallacious book, that the author imposed upon himself as well as upon his admirers, I made a point of treating him with great personal respect; especially as in the proper line of his profession, I had seen what, in my apprehension, discovered much good sense and liberality. But Mr. Marsh probably deems politics, not theology, his *forte*; and will not thank me for a compliment which is accompanied with any such abatement.

'Indeed, considering the excessive arrogance of the tone which he assumed, and even the gross obloquy which he presumed to cast upon those who were not convinced by his arguments, weak and contemptible as they are, representing us as actuated by obstinacy, perverseness, and "party malevolence;" which I had, in my Remarks, expressly declared that I would not suppose of him; I thought I had some reason to plume myself upon my meekness and forbearance: nor shall I, notwithstanding the rudeness and asperity of his Reply, now descend to use any language inconsistent with *general respect*; although

although he must pardon me if I cannot refrain from some indications of the very low estimation in which I hold him as a politician. The Public are certainly no farther interested in this controversy, than as it relates to the question of aggression respecting the war: but I shall claim their indulgence in saying a few words, *en passant*, in vindication of my own character, unnecessarily and wantonly traduced.'

For Mr. Belsham's well-maintained arguments in support of his *Remarks*, &c. we shall, for the reasons already intimated regarding the two preceding publications, refer to his *Reply* at large.

Art. 50. *The Substance of Earl Temple's Speech*, delivered in the House of Commons, May 4, 1801, on the Subject of Mr. John Horne Tooke's Eligibility to a Seat in Parliament. 8vo. 2s. Wright.

"*Once a Captain, always a Captain,*"

is a maxim which is made to apply very forcibly to the clerical corps. Other professions may be changed at will: but a priest, it is decreed, must be a *priest for ever after the order of Melchisedeck*; though it is difficult, if not impossible, clearly to define (as Dr. Campbell has shewn in the extracts made from his work, see our present Number, p. 271.) wherein the indelibility of the clerical character consists. Lord Temple has argued the question respecting Mr. Horne Tooke's eligibility to a seat in the House of Commons, on account of having been ordained to priest's orders, with considerable ability on his side of the question,—attempting to shew that precedent was in his favour; and though he did not carry his point in that night's debate, he may be said to have ultimately succeeded; since it has been settled by a new act of parliament, that, henceforwards, ordination to the priestly office disqualifies a man from representing a county or borough in the House of Commons.

Moo-y.

SINGLE SERMONS.

Art. 51. *Preached at Hanover-square, Newcastle*, for the Support of the New College, Manchester. By William Turner. 8vo. 1s. Johnson. 1800.

This is an ingenious and useful discourse. The short view which it affords of the arduous progress of Christian liberty, since the Reformation, may be interesting and acceptable to many readers:—but the author's principal intention is to invite assistance and encouragement for the *College* mentioned above, intended for the education of ministers among that class of dissenters who, descended from *Presbyterian* ancestors, are now improperly called by that name;—who, receiving the Scriptures, yet, 'have no creed as a term of communion;'—who 'consider the persons assembled' in their places of worship, 'not as Episcopalians, Presbyterians, or Independents, not as Calvinists or Arminians, Trinitarians or Unitarians, Baptists or Pædobaptists, *as such;* but as so many *individual Christians;* each one professing Christianity for himself, according to his own views of it, and acknowleging the Minister's right to do the same; and as necessarily united in nothing but a desire to worship the supreme Lord of all as the disciples of one common

Master, and also in a desire to keep the unity of the spirit in the bond of peace, rather than the unity of the faith in the bonds of ignorance and presumption.' This is a brief view of the design of this discourse, in the writer's own words. He manifests much liberality and candour, and his style is that of a man of learning, though it is at times somewhat involved. Hi.

Art. 52. *Preached in the Parish Church of Langton juxta Partney*, Lincolnshire, June 8, 1800, being the Day appointed for a public Thanksgiving to Almighty God for the Providential Protection of the King from the late atrocious Attempt against his sacred Person. By the Rev. Robert Uvedale, M. A. 4to. 1s. Hurst.

This sermon is well composed, and manifests ability. It recommends religion, or the *fear of God*, as the foundation of all good conduct; and, next, submission to Government. The language is strong, yet not unguarded; and when attentively considered, perhaps few will dissent from its decisions, though they might not express themselves exactly in the same terms. Hi.

CORRESPONDENCE.

The author of a *Proposal in Behalf of the married Poor*, mentioned in our last Review, conceives that we have not fully expressed his idea in our account of it. If this be the case, the deficiency was accidental, for we were and are anxious to render him all the justice in our power, because we admired the good sense and general tendency of his little tract. We learn from his letter, however, that he wishes to have it especially considered, that he strongly recommends the extension of parochial allowance to the *families* of the industrious poor, who should not be permitted to become absolute paupers. The *married poor*, he observes, should have their domestic comforts promoted, and their virtuous efforts stimulated, from motives of sound policy as well as of benevolence. We are so strongly of this opinion, that we have repeatedly recommended the *cottage* system, in preference to the plan of *Poor-Houses* or *Houses of Industry*; and if we did not more fully advert to that idea in our account of this writer's *Proposal*, the omission originated in the fear of a too frequent repetition of the same thought, rather than in a wish to withhold from the public any sentiment of this humane author. Similar suggestions are offered by another writer on this subject: see p. 328. of this Review. Mon.

The letter from Richmond, in Yorkshire, is under consideration.

The object of F. G.'s application will not be forgotten: but we must request him to exercise some degree of patience, in consideration of the numerous calls on our attention.

☞ In the Review for June, p. 210. l. 12. from bott. insert *that* after '*mentions*.' P. 212. l. 32. dele the comma after '*instead*.' P. 217. l. 20. dele the comma after '*will*.'

P. 286. note, for 'σεν' r. σευ.